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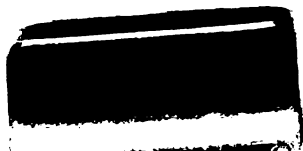
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AUSTRIA  
OF THE  
AUSTRIANS  
AND  
HUNGARY  
OF THE  
HUNGARIANS







**Austria of the Austrians**  
**and**  
**Hungary of the Hungarians**

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HIS IMPERIAL MAJESTY THE EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA  
AND KING OF HUNGARY

# Austria of the Austrians and Hungary of the Hungarians

By

L. Kellner, Madame Paula Arnold,  
" and Arthur L. Delisle

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# AUSTRIA AND HUNGARY

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## INTRODUCTORY

### WHAT IS AUSTRIA-HUNGARY?

THIS question seems a strange one, perhaps, yet some years ago there were few Englishmen who could have answered it, and even to-day, after political differences **Austria** **a Confusing** **Notion.** alas! have awakened interest in the Monarchy on the Danube, the ideas of the English concerning it are most hazy.

The writer, on being introduced to English people as an Austrian, has been asked the queerest questions—and indeed, it must be confusing to meet Germans, Czechs, Slovaks, Poles, Ruthenians, Slovenes, Servians, Croatians, Italians, Roumanians, and Jews all describing themselves as “Austrians,” not to speak of the several hundred thousand Bulgarians, Albanese, Turks, Armenians, Greeks, and Gipsies who also live in our midst, but, not being represented in the House of Parliament, do not count.

The key to the mystery of such disparate races forming one State is the geographical unity of the four groups of provinces, the Alpine, the Sudetian, the Carpathian, and the Carst Group, so that they are more or less dependent on each other. They are walled in by high mountain chains, the open part pointing towards the valley of the Danube, near Vienna, and all the great natural highways of traffic converging in this focus of the four spheres.

To understand this strange conglomerate thoroughly, however, it is necessary to see how it has grown.



## 2 Austria and Hungary

The nucleus was a little frontier county of the German Empire, founded by Charlemagne as a bulwark against the Avars about the year 800, with the old Roman town of Vienna (Vindobona) for its centre. It was somewhat enlarged by the clever and able Counts of Babenberg, who held it for about three hundred years and were made dukes by the German Emperor. Theirs was a famous court in Vienna, and some of the greatest poets of the time lived there. The best known of the Babenbergs is Leopold the Fifth, he who quarrelled with Richard the Lionheart in Palestine and later kept him prisoner.

The  
Beginnings  
of the Empire.

When the last of them died (in 1246), there were quarrels as to who should get the Duchy, and in the confusion that reigned everywhere a clever but most unscrupulous man, King Ottokar of Bohemia and Moravia, annexed the Duchy as well as three counties in the Alps—Styria, Carinthia and the Ukraine. Thus a large part of what to-day forms the Austrian half of the Dual Monarchy (the Sudetian and the Alpine Group), comprising already Czech, German and Slovenian countries, was then united under one monarch. This union, however, did not last long.

Rudolf of Habsburg, the ruler of Germany, fought Ottokar for the annexed countries, remained victor and gave the Alpine counties, *i.e.*, Austria, Styria, Carinthia and the Ukraine, to his sons (in 1282).

The  
Habsburgs.

From that time onwards it was the chief care of that far-seeing, ambitious and energetic race, whose scions reign in Austria to this day, to enlarge and round off these possessions, and that rarely by war, most often by agreements respecting claims of inheritance and by advantageous marriages, so that at one time it was well said of them: *Bella gerant alii, tu, felix Austria, nube.* Especially Rudolf IV, and later Maximilian I, were clever in this way.

It would lead too far to tell how often the four groups were

united and severed again. Suffice it to say that in 1526, the birth-year of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, Bohemia, Moravia, Hungary, Austria and other Alpine counties were united and kept together in spite of several attempts on the part of Bohemia and Hungary to regain their independence.

By the beginning of the eighteenth century the Realm was more or less rounded off in its natural boundaries—

**The Realm  
Rounded Off.**

formed by the great mountain chains spoken of above, and now began a period of annexations lying beyond those boundaries, the chief of which were the following : the Polish and Ruthenian provinces of Galicia and Bukowina and the strip of Adriatic coast called Dalmatia being acquired in the last quarter of the eighteenth century, Salzburg, that beautiful bit of Alpine scenery, in 1805, Cracow, the most important Polish town, in 1846, and Bosnia and Herzegowina in 1878 (and 1908).

The annexation of these last-named countries has—most unjustly, as I hope to show—roused so much bad blood in England that I am bound to speak of it at greater length.

It had belonged to the Turks until 1878, when the Berlin Congress followed Lord Beaconsfield's suggestion and decreed

**The  
Annexation  
of Bosnia.**

that the country whose exclusively Croatian population, exceeding 2,000,000, has a Christian percentage of some 68 and which had been rebellious and troublesome for a long time, should be occupied and governed by Austria, the only neighbouring State powerful enough to bring peace to the distracted country. In his famous speech on the subject Lord Beaconsfield said :

The state of Bosnia, and of those provinces and principalities contiguous to it, was one of chronic anarchy. There is no language which can describe adequately the condition of that large portion of the Balkan peninsula occupied by Roumania, Servia, Bosnia, Herzegowina, and other provinces. Political intrigues, constant rivalries, a total absence of all public spirit, and of the pursuit of objects which patriotic minds would wish to accomplish, the hatred of races, the animosities of rival religions, and above all, the absence of any controlling power

that could keep these large districts in anything like order ; such were the sad truths, which no one who has investigated the subject could resist for a moment.

What was to be done ? There have been before, in the history of diplomacy, not unfrequent instances, in which, even in civilised parts of the globe, states having fallen into decrepitude, afforded no assistance to keep order and tranquillity, and have become, as these districts have become, a source of danger to their neighbours. Under such circumstances, the Powers of Europe have generally looked to see whether there was any neighbouring Power of a character entirely different from these disturbed and desolated regions, but deeply interested in their welfare and prosperity, who would undertake the task of attempting to restore their tranquillity and prosperity.

In the present case you will see that the position of Austria is one that clearly indicates her as fitted to undertake such an office. Austria in the present case was deeply interested that some arrangement should be made. Austria for now nearly three years had upwards of 15,000 refugees from Bosnia, who have been supported by her resources, and whose demands notoriously have been of a vexatious and exhausting character. It was therefore thought expedient by the Congress that Austria should be invited to occupy Bosnia. My lords, I am the last man who would wish, when objections are made to our proceedings, to veil them under the decision of the Congress ; it was a decision which the plenipotentiaries of England highly approved. It was a proposal which, as your lordships will see when you refer to the protocols which I shall lay on the table, was made by my noble friend the Secretary of State, that Austria should accept this trust and fulfil this duty ; and I earnestly supported him on that occasion.

The occupation was welcomed in the South (the Herzegovina), and accordingly was almost peaceful, while Bosnia resisted for three months. Gradually, however, the country was pacified, the populace finding out after a time that living under the Austrian flag was far more comfortable than under the Turkish one, and when in October, 1908, Austria-Hungary formally annexed the province which for more than thirty years had only been Turkish in name, the people took this as quietly as possible, and Turkey was satisfied also, getting back the Sandjak of Novibazar and a handsome sum of money. Nobody could seriously expect Austria to give up a province that had been solemnly handed over to her by a European Congress, and which had cost her thousands of men and millions of money.

It was only abroad, where the fact of the *occupation* had

been forgotten, and in Serbia, which was hoping to get a share of the pudding when the time came, that the suddenly proclaimed *annexation* roused bad feeling. The annexed country itself was pleased, if anything. Since then Serbia has been hard at work to rouse sedition in Bosnia, as elsewhere ; truth to say with small results. Her successes are limited to the towns, the whole of the Mohammedan population, as well as the Christian peasants, having remained most loyal subjects.

The period of all these acquisitions, however, was also one of losses : part of Silesia was given over to Prussia after the Seven Years' War, Lombardy and Venetia to Italy after the unlucky wars of 1859 and 1866.

All these provinces were possessions of the Habsburgs, united only by the person of the ruler, who was called King of Hungary and Bohemia, Duke of Austria, Count of Tyrol, etc., etc. Now for a very long time the chief of the House of Habsburg-Lorraine (in 1740 the male line of the Habsburgs had died out and Maria Theresa married a Duke of Lorraine) had always been Emperor of Germany, too. But when Napoleon swept across Europe, Francis I foresaw the fall of his German Empire, and in 1804 declared himself Emperor of the Austro-Hungarian provinces also, thus establishing a new Monarchy and keeping at least his title, when the *German* Empire, with which we have no concern here, was torn to bits in 1806.

In 1848 the great revolution broke out in Austria. The second Emperor of the Monarchy, Ferdinand, was a feeble man of little mental power, his minister Metternich, the well-known reactionary who at a time held all Europe by his leading strings, being all-powerful. Metternich fled the country, and the Emperor resigned in favour of his nephew, the present Emperor Francis Joseph I.

Under this remarkable personality, then a boy of eighteen, the revolution was stamped out everywhere, but the old

**The Monarchy  
formally  
Established.**

**The  
Revolution  
of 1848.**

institutions nevertheless gave place to modern ones in all respects, and slowly, very slowly, the Constitution of to-day was evolved. Trial after trial was made, the difficulties being enormous because of the strife between the different races, but in 1867 at last two separate constitutional states were formed out of the chaos: Austria and Hungary.

The leading thought in thus dividing the Monarchy was that the Magyar (or Hungarian) race should now be supreme in the Hungarian half, to which belong Hungary proper, Slavonia, Croatia, and the port of Fiume with the surrounding bit of country, while the Germans are supposed

to have the supremacy in the Austrian half, consisting of the following provinces: Lower Austria, Upper Austria, Salzburg, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, the Adriatic Coast (Küstenland), Dalmatia, Tyrol and Vorarlberg, Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, Galicia, Bukowina. Bosnia and Herzegovina are ruled more or less absolutely, having autonomous diets, but not sending any delegates to Parliament.

The above supposition has proved correct as regards Hungary, where ingenious and fervent statesmen have managed to organise the country as a Hungarian National State, giving a certain autonomy to the South Slav countries (Slavonia and Croatia) and thus neutralising them, while all the other Non-Magyars in the State (Roumanians, Jews, Germans, Slovaks) have been and are being systematically Magyarized, the Magyar language being proclaimed the State language, and other measures being taken, not all of them scrupulously fair, but all pointing towards the same goal, which is being rapidly reached.

In contrast to this unswervingly purposeful nationalisation, the Austrian half of the Monarchy has not been reorganised on the same principle. What resulted was a sort of United Empire with a Central Parliament, but no care was taken to draw the political boundary-lines between the provinces according to the true national relations. We might have

# Line of Continuity



"Küpfkogel," G.m.b.h., Vienna

## GUMPOLDSKIRCHEN

Photo by

70 ymU  
ABSTRACTO

avoided the terrible and incessant quarrels—these being the result of almost no single race having a working majority in any political district. This, however, will be fully explained later.

To return to the relations between Hungary and Austria, previously pointed out. As has been said before, the two are really separate States, each with its own Parliament and Civil Government, having in common only the Sovereign (called Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary), the Foreign Office, the Army and Navy, and part of the Finances.

The Common Affairs are conducted by the three competent Ministries (Foreign Office, War Office, Ministry of Finance) and the "Delegations," a kind of Parliament for Common Affairs delegated every year by the Parliaments proper and meeting alternately in Vienna and in Budapest. A Bill relating to common affairs has thus to pass both the Austrian and the Hungarian Delegations and to be sanctioned by the Sovereign in order to become law.

The present Sovereign, Francis Joseph I, is one of the most interesting personalities amongst European monarchs,

on account of his character as well as his experiences. Coming to the throne when little more than a boy, at the most difficult period imaginable, when the revolution had broken out in several provinces, he has reigned most successfully now for almost seventy years, and during this time Austria's economical and industrial development has been marvellous, in spite of two disastrously unlucky wars and the nationalist troubles. For almost fifty years he has maintained peace, much as this may sometimes have been against his inclination, for he is a soldier first and foremost, and has been under fire himself more than once. The Army is his chief delight, and up to the year 1907 he still sat his horse at the Annual Manœuvres, rain or shine, for eight and even ten hours a day—quite a respectable feat for a man of seventy-seven. He lives most frugally, getting up every morning at five, sometimes at four, eating very little, his



food being of the simplest, and taking a good deal of exercise, stag hunting near Ischl, his lovely summer residence, being his favourite sport. The Emperor is a famous sportsman, and a wonderful shot. People who know say that he has never yet missed beast or bird. He still walks about by himself a good deal, talking freely to the people in his genial way, with the slight Viennese accent they love to hear.

He is in particularly close contact with his people by means of the audiences which he alone of all European monarchs grants three times a week from ten to one o'clock whenever he is in Vienna, to whoever wants to come.

You must first apply for an audience at the *Kabinetshanzlei*, the Emperor's private office, stating your name and the object of your visit. When your wish is granted, a day is appointed. The ante-room, a splendid hall, is crowded with applicants, male and female, of all nationalities and walks of life, from the poorest peasant in his native garb, to staff officers in brilliant uniforms. When you are admitted to the Presence, you find yourself in an oblong, rather bare room. While you are making your bow, you notice the Emperor at the other end of the long room, bending over some manuscript at a little table. This is the list of visitors. He has just been looking at your name and the object of your visit. Then he comes down with long, firm strides to where you are shaking in your shoes—for this is what ordinary people do in presence of Royalty. If you happen to be a high official, and have come to thank His Majesty for your latest preferment, he tells you that he is always happy to give merit its due, and he is sure to add a question or two as to your present aspirations and doings in the public interest. The Emperor's wonderful memory has never failed him yet on such occasions, and though you may know that he has just been looking for your name and vocation, it gives you a most agreeable sensation to find the Emperor of Austria interested in your little affairs. If you happen to be an applicant for justice or an Imperial favour, the Emperor will listen patiently to

all you have to say, ask a pertinent question now and then, and at last tell you with his inimitable charming good-nature that you may be sure he will do everything in his power to comply with your wish.

Hundreds and hundreds of anecdotes are told of these audiences. Two of them, for the authenticity of which we can answer safely, will bear repeating in this connection.

A famous scholar obtained a professorship in the University of Vienna and according to custom came to thank the Emperor for the appointment. "What languages do you teach?" asked the Emperor. The professor replied that it was chiefly Hebrew, Arabic, and Assyrian. "You have not many students, have you?" asked the Emperor with a smile. "Only five, I am sorry to say," the crestfallen professor answered. To which the Emperor replied reassuringly: "So much the better for the five!"

The widow of an officer was escorted into the ante-room by a comrade of her late husband's. She was extremely nervous in view of the imminent trial of speaking to His Majesty in favour of a good-for-nothing son who had misbehaved himself in the Army. When the poor mother had been admitted to the audience, the officers in the ante-room put their heads together, and they all agreed that the Emperor could not possibly do anything for the widow, as the minister of war had decided the case against her son. After a quarter of an hour the lady came out and said, the tears streaming down her sallow cheeks: "The Emperor, God bless him, has a heart—the minister has not!"

He is extremely cultured, and speaks French and the languages of his subjects (especially Hungarian, Czech and Italian) like his mother tongue. He takes the greatest interest in painting, being a good draughtsman himself, and never misses an important exhibition, sometimes staying there for hours and revisiting it again, if there is something that interests him particularly.

He has been very unhappy in his private life, losing his only son, a highly-gifted and most liberal-minded man, by

suicide, and the beautiful and accomplished wife he had married for love (refusing her elder sister who had been meant for him) by murder, after she had been melancholy and misanthropic for years, owing to the tragic death of her son. He is happy in his younger daughter's charming family, however. She has married a cousin and lives not far from Vienna in her country place of Wallsee with her eight children, to whom the Emperor is devoted.

Kind-hearted and sweet-tempered as he is, he has always been a good friend to children and to the poor. When his eightieth birthday was approaching he had a touching idea which was carried out with great success: he asked to be spared all noisy and expensive festivals and suggested that the money saved that way be put into charity funds for children instead.

His memory and quick perception, even now in his old age, are said to be marvellous, and the amount of work he gets through in a day can only be explained by these gifts.

Though very religious, like all his family, he is most liberal in his opinions—unlike the Heir to the Throne, with whom he does not always see eye to eye in consequence.

According to constitutional principles he has never put himself forward but once, and this instance is well suited to show his strength of character. In 1911 the Hungarians were wilfully making trouble over a most necessary Army Bill he had set his heart on. Negotiation after negotiation failed, the ministers were at their wits' end, and things had come to a dead-lock, when the old man suddenly stood up for the Bill personally, actually declaring his intention to abdicate if it were not carried—of course the Hungarians gave in like lambs.

He is extremely popular, as was also well seen in 1907, when he lay ill for the first time for many years. For weeks crowds of people of all classes and parties stood before the windows of his palace in Schönbrunn night and day, silent and patient, waiting for the news, the tears coursing down their faces when the tidings were bad. In his convalescence, when

he was able to look out of the window again, they brought floral offerings, each laying their bunch on the ground, and thus the square was always strewn with flowers.

The Austro-Hungarian Army is a standing one, consisting of the Common Army and the Austrian and Hungarian Territorials. After the disaster of 1866 it was

**The  
Army.**

equipped with modern rifles and altogether reorganised, so that now it is equal to the

other great European Armies in every respect.

The system of conscription is carried out as follows : Every male citizen who is sane and sound (with some exceptions, as priests), is obliged to serve for two years consecutively and to remain at disposal, with some weeks' training exercises, for ten years more. This applies to the infantry only, in the cavalry and horse artillery regiments three years' active service and seven years' reserve service being the rule. When they have passed through these two stages the men are enrolled in the militia (*Landsturm*), to which also belong those who in consequence of ill-health could not serve at all. Public school men, that is those who have passed their final examination at a public school (or after going through at least six classes of the same, pass a special examination), need only serve for one year. They have a higher status altogether : they need not live in barracks except for the first six weeks, may keep a servant for cleaning their things, and become officers in the reserve after a year or two.

The Navy is a comparatively new institution in Austria, having only been properly founded by the Emperor's brother Archduke Ferdinand Max, in 1850. He was

**The  
Navy.**

a man of great ability and ambition who did wonders in the short time he worked at the

organisation of the Navy. As is well known, he was shot by the rebels in Mexico, where he had been persuaded to go as Emperor by Napoleon III. His successor in the work of naval reform was Admiral Tegetthoff, who fought the first naval battles for Austria with great success.

Since then the fleet has been continually enlarged and modernised, and to-day Austria has a small, but perfectly efficient Navy consisting of four Dreadnoughts (not launched yet) of more than 20,000 tons, nine modern battleships of 8,000 to 15,000 tons, three antiquated ones of 5,600 tons, apart from several smaller cruisers, torpedo-boats, submarines, etc.

The chief naval port is Pola.

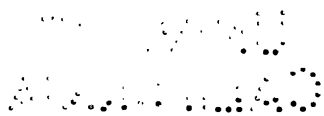
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Photo by

**AGGSTEIN**

"Kloppel," G.m.b.H., Vienna.



# AUSTRIA

## CHAPTER I

### THE AUSTRIAN NATIONS AND THEIR LANDS

APART from the smaller groups mentioned above, the Austrian half of the Empire harbours eleven different nations, who live promiscuously in fourteen provinces, but with the exception of the Jews, in more or less connected masses. Of these, the Czechs, Slovaks and Slovenes alone are wholly under Austrian rule ; all the others are each part of a greater nation which is either independent as a whole—such is the case with the Germans, the Italians, and the Roumanians—or living under different foreign rules—the Poles belonging partly to Germany, partly to Russia, the Ruthenians to Russia, the Servians and Croatians partly to Hungary, partly to Turkey (and, of course, part of them are independent in the kingdoms of Servia and Montenegro), and the Jews, as is well known, are scattered all over the earth.

Their relations in number are the following : the Germans with 35 per cent. are the strongest, but this relative majority is not of much value to them, because the Slav nations together form 60 per cent., of which 23 per cent. go to the Czechs and Slovaks, 18 per cent. to the Poles, 12 per cent. to the Ruthenians, and 7 per cent. to the South Slavs. These sometimes unite against the Germans, and, as the latter are politically divided among themselves, the result is disastrous to them.

Of the different provinces there are only five where the political boundaries really enclose a homogeneous population :



they are the German ones of Lower and Upper Austria and Salzburg, the Slovene one of Carniola (though the 6 per cent. of Germans there are giving trouble still) and the Servo-Croatian one of Dalmatia, Servians and Croatians being very closely related and friends, so far. In the other nine provinces heterogeneous elements are cooped up together in a cage of national laws and by-laws, always hampering one part of the population and setting them up against the other. In Styria and Carinthia Germans and Slovenes are at daggers drawn, Italians are fighting against Slovenes and Servo-Croatians in the Küstenland, against Germans in the Tyrol. In Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia Czechs and Germans are making life a burden to each other, the Poles are squeezing the breath out of the Ruthenians and the Jews in Galicia, and, in the Bukowina, Roumanians, Ruthenians, Germans and Jews are struggling with each other.

In dealing with these different elements, we propose to bring some order into the chaos by treating each race separately, but together with the country in which it is at home, taking for basis the Alps for the Germans and Italians, the Carst for the South Slavs, the Sudetians for the Czechs, the Carpathians for the Poles and Slovaks, Ruthenians and Roumanians. The Jews cannot be properly located in any single province, but they are thickest in the Carpathians.

The Alps undoubtedly contain the most beautiful scenery of Europe, and the greater part of them belong to Austria.

**Scenery in  
the Alps.**

But whereas the rage for Switzerland is more than a hundred years old, the Austrian Alps have only become known to foreigners very recently. And yet they are unequalled for variety of formation.

There are the green hills and fruitful valleys of the two Austrias and Styria with their baby rivers, sweetly restful, cool and pleasant.

There is the Danube, between Passau and Vienna, more

UNITED STATES  
NAVY



Photo by

"Kilphot," G.m.b.H., Vienna.

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## The Austrian Nations and their Lands 15

beautiful even than the Rhine, with castles, ruins and monasteries perched on the rocks and vineclad hills above it. Especially the district called Wachau, only an hour's journey from Vienna, with Dürnstein, the castle where Richard the Lionheart was a prisoner, is a perfect Eden.

There is the Salzkammergut with its lakes, some blue and serene, with white villages and hotels on their banks, with hundreds of boats full of white-clad people skimming over them, a cheerful picture of glad, light-hearted youth. Others are green, almost black, the steep, pine-clad mountain giants stand close to them, darkly reflected in the sombre water, leaving no room for pleasant human homesteads on the banks. A heavy solitude hangs over them, a mournful peace rarely broken by chattering trippers, for none come to stay long—it is an oppressive grandeur, brooding melancholy thoughts. The most beautiful of these lakes, perhaps, is the Gosausee, at the foot of the Dachstein.

There are the glaciers of the Oetzal and the Stubai, the Ortler group and others, majestic like their Swiss brothers, with charming little villages nestling below, sometimes climbing as high as five and six thousand feet, their slim church steeples sharply defined against the snow, the torrents shooting down close to them, and here and there a magnificent waterfall.

There are the warm Carinthian lakes, in their broad, comfortable, wooded valleys, the mountains looking in on them from afar—they are there, they may be climbed any day, but they do not oppress, they do not force themselves upon you.

And there are the Dolomites, with the lonely grandeur of their red fantastic peaks and stony valleys, while two or three thousand feet below the slopes are grown with vines and fine fruit, with olives and mulberry trees, and the broader valleys are golden with corn and maize. There Austria still possesses a bit of the lake of Garda, that dream of poets and painters which has inspired Böcklin and Segantini, Heyse

and Hartleben. A walk on the tableland above the little town of Riva, encircling fields and plantations, the sapphire lake fringed with olives and cypresses below, and the terrible naked red ridges, patched with snow, above—truly it is an experience worth having.

All these lands are by no means barren rock, though, of course, not to be compared with the Sudetians in wealth—they are rich in minerals and mineral waters, in woods and pastures, fields and orchards, and in cattle and game. Of late years the tourists, too, bring a great deal of money into the country.

Nature, however, sometimes works terrible havoc in the Alps, and man has to use all his wits to contend against her when she sends down her avalanches, her roaring torrents, and sometimes landslips, catastrophes which generally occur in spring, when masses of snow melt rapidly under the first warm touch of the sun. The best means of preventing such fatal occurrences is to afforest the danger regions, and this is being done everywhere with excellent results. Apart from the planting of pine woods, called *Bannwälder* (taboo woods), because the axe is banished from them, stone galleries are built to break the force of the avalanches, and dams to regulate the torrents and keep back the rubble.

The German population immigrated in the sixth century, streaming in from the northern valleys, driving back the Slavs who had just come in before them, or Christianising and Germanising them. Living in secluded, and sometimes almost inaccessible valleys, they have kept their variety of customs and costumes, and extremely quaint and picturesque some of them are. Not even the short green stockings of the men, that leave the knee bare, are quite universally worn—in a great part of the Tyrol long white stockings are the rule. And as to the women's dress, every valley has distinctions, and especially the headdress is of great variety—sometimes a

**Elemental  
Catastrophes.**

**The  
Germana.**



"Kloppel," G.m.b.H., Vienna.

DREI ZINNEN

Photo by

TO VNU  
ABSTRACT

black silk turban, sometimes a black straw hat with streamers, sometimes the most wonderful bonnets, heavy with gold embroidery and beads, sometimes high fur caps not unlike those of the English Guards; but the two last named are already becoming scarce.

Drunkards are very rare among these people, who meet on Sunday to dance and sing, improvising pretty *Schnadahüpfel* as their mostly humorous four-line songs are called, to play the zither, and, if the truth may be said, to fight and wrangle a good deal, the Tyrolese especially being quick at picking a quarrel. But the drinking on these occasions is very moderate.

They are thrifty and hard-working people, frugal and absolutely honest, inclined towards poetry and philosophy, and in contrast to the Germans in the Sudetian Group, who are more like the sober Prussians, extremely easy-going and kind-hearted. Having been the governing race for a long time they have acquired an overbearing manner, however, and an insufferable intolerance and national pride which often puts them in the wrong where they are actually right. Theirs is the highest state of civilisation in the Monarchy, it is true, but the Czechs are rapidly gaining on them, and it seems doubtful to whom the future belongs, especially as they are priest-ridden in the extreme, most so in the Tyrol and Salzburg, and the Clerical Party in Parliament is mostly recruited from these Germans. In the Sudetians they live in the poor mountain districts and are kept down by the Czechs, so naturally they are more progressive there.

The Carst is probably the most interesting part of the Empire from every point of view. Its strange, desolate

**Carst  
Scenery.**

aspect is, for the greater part, due to the thoughtless and barbarous treatment of the woods which in former times were cut and never reafforested, so that the strong wind and water carried off the soil, and the efflorescence had free play in the soft, porous chalk. Now the mountains are desolate and barren, except where there are the characteristic moulds with vegetable



soil at the bottom, called Dolines and Polyés. The Dolines are much smaller and generally round, they are either funnels formed by efflorescence, or caves, the ceiling of which has broken in. The Polyés are much larger and have very good soil indeed. They extend in the same direction as the mountain chain, differing from other valleys by having no connection with each other, not being drained by actual rivers, but by shafts in which the water disappears, generally at the bottom of the Polye, sometimes at the side. There are many rivers in the Carst which vanish and come up again; they are not fully explored by any means, and there is a rich field yet for research in that direction. In connection with these phenomena are the wonderful, world-famous grottoes, the one in Adelsberg especially being the grandest in the world. It is really a succession of immense grottoes, 9 kilometres in length altogether, with a broad river running through the first of them and then vanishing. They are beautiful halls, the largest 600 feet long and broad, and 150 feet high, full of fantastical stalagmites and stalactites, mostly white, sometimes faintly pink and yellow, and forming strange shapes, columns and obelisks, curtains and Gothic ornaments. A little railway (with pulleys only) has been run through them, they are lighted by electricity, and on feast days dances are held there, to which the population from miles around flocks eagerly.

The Carst countries are also the only ones reaching to the coast—doubly important because it is such a small strip that Austria possesses. The Carst landscape is romantic and beautiful even inland—in Carinola, for instance, you may see pictures out of fairy tales even when passing through by train, as for instance, Veldes (not to be confounded with Velden in Carinthia), an enchanting old grey church with a bell tinkling all the time, in the middle of a little green lake, surrounded by steep rocks. On the top of one a ruined castle is perched and goats are climbing the narrow path towards it. And behind them rises the gloomy naked ridge of the Karawanken.

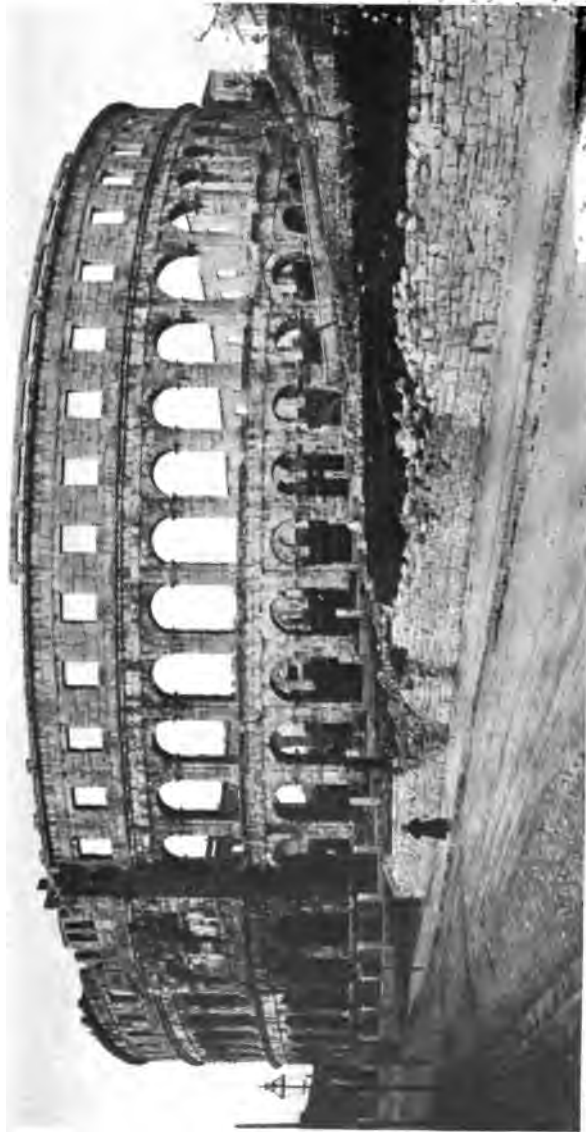


Photo by

**POLA, THE ARENA**

"Kilophot," G.m.b.H., Vienna.

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But those are nothing compared to the pictures formed by the mountains and the sea together, attaining their height of loveliness in Dalmatia, that rather neglected country which has only very lately been invaded by tourists. There is some resemblance to the coast of Devonshire, especially round Lynton. But here the Mediterranean climate has wound a garland of evergreen vegetation round the blue sea—woods of laurel and cypresses, clumps and plantations of figs, pomegranates, lemons and oranges. And the roses bloom in January!

It is not only the geologist and the lover of nature, however, to whom the Carst affords a never-flagging interest—nowhere else in Austria are there so many splendid ruins dating from Roman times; and again it is Dalmatia, especially Spalato, which offers most to the student of history.

The most important ports are Triest, Fiume (which belongs to Hungary) and Pola, the chief naval port. Triest was not a naturally favourable harbour, lying unprotected before the Bora, the terrible cold

**Triest.** wind of those regions, but it was the only possible one, and the Government being eager to make the important railroads leading to the sea independent of Venice, has taken up the struggle with unfavourable natural conditions and has won. To-day Triest is a beautiful modern town-port offering excellent shelter for the ships. It has more than 200,000 inhabitants; 12,000 ships, of together 8,500,000 register tons, touch there yearly; its industry is flourishing; and apart from several small shipping companies, the Austrian Lloyd and the Austro-Americana have their chief offices there.

Regarded from a political point of view, the Carst countries are a doubtful blessing to the Monarchy so far. But since Austria was turned out of the German Union by Bismarck, its sphere of interest has of necessity been transferred to the near East, where lies its chief possibility of economic expansion. At the present moment things are

at such a stage that it would be absurd to prophesy—but there seems, after all, some hope of pacifying the turbulent elements in the Servo-Croatian provinces by making reasonable concessions such as the official use of their language, etc., and so at last making it feasible truly to civilise those countries and develop their immense possibilities—for their own good and that of the Empire.

The most dangerous element of the Unity of the Monarchy, however, are not the South Slavs, but the Italians, who form the bulk of the population in the south of the Tyrol and in the Küstenland. Living in close proximity to their passionately patriotic brethren across the frontier, they naturally gravitate towards them. As they are rather slack and lazy in comparison with their German neighbours, these latter generally have the whip hand of them economically, and truth to say, there is not much love lost between them in any way. The German is inclined to consider the Italian underhand, furtive, even dishonest, and treats him accordingly, while the Italian looks on the German as a tyrant and barbarian, with feelings that are a mixture of contempt and hatred.

For the rest, the Italians in Austria do not differ from their brethren in the Kingdom. They are lazy, but violent, quick to love and quick to hate. On the other hand, they are also frugal, extremely clever, and gifted in learning as well as in arts and crafts. A beautiful trait of theirs is also their tolerance in religious matters, very rare in a Latin and an exclusively Catholic people.

The South Slavs (Slovenes in Crain and the Küstenland, Servians and Croatians in Dalmatia and Bosnia-Herzegowina) are the most backward in civilisation of all the Austrian peoples, and consequently the most interesting as regards their customs.

Of course the following remarks can be fully applied only as regards the South-Eastern part of the provinces, and the reader must bear in mind that civilisation increases and

## The Austrian Nations and their Lands 21

primitiveness decreases gradually as we approach the West, that is to say, the Alpine counties.

The most remarkable features in the life of the South Slavs are their patriarchal communities. Family life is still so distinctly marked that the eldest and ablest member of the family exercises absolute power over the others, who sometimes number as many as eighty, all living in the same house or group of houses, in one farm. He gives out the work, he administers the property, and to him they all turn for advice.

Large groups of people thus living together and having each other to turn to, are not so much given to frequenting the public-houses, and thus the South Slavs are not nearly so degraded by drink as the Poles and Ruthenians.

The seamy side of their life is the way the women are overworked. They are no better than domestic animals from the time they are married, having to help in the fields, do the house work, spin, weave, and sew all the clothing for the whole family and carry water, sometimes from far down the hill. They also have to find time in the winter months to do the fine embroidery and lace-work for which they are famous, and which sells very well now that bright colours have become the fashion.

When the girls marry they get no portion of the property—all they have is their store of linen and clothes, and sometimes, when they have been in service, the money they have saved there, called their "basket."

They are generally very beautiful in face and figure, with a peculiarly proud carriage and a swinging gait, but they get old and wizened even earlier than the German peasants.

Altogether the people are ignorant and illiterate, dirty and slipshod, but very warm-hearted, extremely hospitable, even to the merest stranger, and bold and reckless to the last degree, the best soldiers, sailors and fishermen in the Monarchy.

The Sudetian countries (Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia)

**The Sudetians.** are the richest and economically most advanced provinces of the Empire.

The scenery cannot compare with that of the Alps, the mountains all being much lower, and never reaching the grandeur of even the lesser Alpine chains,

**Scenery.** but they have a loveliness all their own, and there are many charming summer resorts in the Riesengebirge, a country rich in legends, the Erzgebirge, where the many ravines produce an impression of ruggedness and greatness not warranted by its modest height, the Sächsische Schweiz, with the stately river Elbe flowing between grotesquely-formed red rocks, the Böhmerwald with its wonderful old-time forests and ice-grottos, the Altvatergebirge, where merry rivulets frisk through darkly wooded chimes, and the fertile Mährische Schweiz, with its caves and other Carstlike phenomena.

The Bohemian watering-places, Karlsbad, Marienbad, Franzensbad and Joachimstal, by far the strongest radium spring on earth, are well known all over the world. Hundreds of thousands of sick people from the four corners of the earth go there every year, most of whom return home cured, or at least, relieved.

The Czechs immigrated into these countries in the sixth century, when the Germans had just left them, and lived in the plains forming the centre, without penetrating into the primeval forests of the border.

**The Czechs.** In the thirteenth century the Bohemian kings and nobles invited German colonists to come into their country for the purpose of advancing agriculture and mining. They came, partly cleared the forests and germanised the valley of the Eger. This rural colonisation did not last long, but the Germans spread over the country in the town-ships, and by dint of their high standard of civilisation soon played a prominent part, attaining the height of their influence in the fourteenth century. Then the Czechs' great religious

## The Austrian Nations and their Lands 23

and national movement set in, and the German population of the central districts was swallowed, while the borders have remained German to this day.

The Czechs are a clever and industrious people, cleanly, persevering and thorough-going, very good at manual work of all kinds, gifted in music like all Slav peoples, and also in science and mathematics. But they are supposed to be rather underhand in their ways, and, just because of that, extremely suspicious of others. They are dogmatical too, never knowing when they are beaten, and never owning themselves to be in the wrong.

Much the same applies to the Slovaks, except that they are not so gifted, and altogether on a lower plane of civilisation. They still wear their quaint national costumes, like the Alpine Germans, and stick to them even when going to the towns as servants. As they are very good wet-nurses and nursery-maids, they have become quite familiar figures even in Vienna, with their beautifully starched white bonnets, dark jackets and short skirts, very full and just reaching to their knees, and gaudy-coloured aprons and stockings.

In number the Czechs have the majority over the Germans, forming 65 per cent. of the population. They are thickest in Moravia, while in Silesia the Germans are quite a respectable minority, in fact almost half of the population, which also comprises a great many Poles.

The Carpathian Provinces belonging to the Austrian half of the Empire, are Galicia and Bukowina, countries rich in excellent soil, in coal and oil and wood, and yet their peasantry is the poorest of all. There is a terrible chasm yawning between the rich Polish aristocracy, whose immense estates extend all over the Ruthenian as well as the Polish territory, and the impoverished peasant population with its tiny bits of ground. Poles, Ruthenians and Roumanians; they are all alike suffering from want of ground, want of proper tools and machinery,



want of modern methods, want of every kind of knowledge, even that of reading and writing. In their distress (and the cold climate has something to do with that, too) they are given to drink, and the ill-advised Government has found an ingenious remedy for that : the public-houses being mostly in the hands of the Jews (reasons will be given later), the licences for keeping public-houses were taken away from these unlucky people, thousands of whom were thus robbed of their meagre sustenance at a moment's notice. This is well worth remarking : the drinking houses were not abolished, they were merely taken out of the hands of the Jews and given to the peasants themselves, who are at liberty to drink themselves to death as before.

The landscape of the Podolian *plain* is almost devoid of beauty, but the mountains, especially the Great Tatra, which resembles the Northern Alps in their rocky, sombre parts, are well worth visiting. There are no glaciers, in spite of the height of 8,000 feet, but there is eternal snow in the clefts of the rocks, and for ruggedness and grandeur it stands alone in Eastern Europe. There are also tiny green lakes embedded in the rocks, many thousand feet high, appropriately called *Meeraugen* (eyes of the sea), and long caves where one can wander for hours without coming to an end.

The Poles form the majority of the population only in Western Galicia, but their influence reaches far into the East, where bitter struggles between them and the Ruthenians are going on. In character they are strikingly like the Irish. Their perfervid patriotism comes from the depth of their hearts, as is only natural in a people of a grand past, but a sorry present, being held in subjection by three different powers, and one of those powers Russia. They are gifted in art more than any of the Austrian peoples, first-class composers and performing artists, painters, writers and poets of imagination and strength. They are courteous and charming in manners,

their women are beautiful, and in the upper classes extremely cultured and accomplished, perfect women of the world, though helpless in the art of house-keeping. But they are improvident and easy-going, shiftless and lazy, quick of tongue and slow of deed. Their peasantry is dirty, slovenly, and bigoted beyond belief, their aristocracy haughty and pleasure loving.

The Ruthenians in Eastern Galicia and the Bukowina, almost equalling the Poles in number, have not nearly the same influence with the Government. They are a quiet, melancholy people, closely related to the Russians, whose religion they share. They are being roused from their lethargy now by their intelligent classes, and likely to become dangerous to the Poles, so far the masters of the country. They are not very brilliant, and like all suppressed peoples, are rather sly and underhand, quite as dirty and shiftless as the Poles, but more industrious. They generally wear their national costumes still, even the boys going to the public schools. The women's is primitive, but pretty: a long linen garment like a nightdress, beautifully embroidered on the sleeves, which does duty for chemise, blouse and skirt, a dark woollen apron, and in winter a sheepskin jacket.

The Roumanians, who live in the Bukowina, are a strange race, quite unlike the other Latin peoples at heart, though outwardly the very images of the ancient Romans. Their most striking characteristics are discretion and caution, which often degenerates into cunning, and national pride, which to the stranger looks like unspeakable conceit. They never marry a stranger if they can possibly help it, regarding everybody outside their clan as beneath them. A girl cannot even marry into the next village without losing caste. They are extravagantly hospitable to friends, and set an absurdly high value on public opinion. They are indolent and lazy like all Southern nations, especially the women, who never work in the fields.

When the Roumanian peasant is asked after his wife, the standing answer is: She is cherishing her beauty. Even the peasant women have been known to paint and wear false hair, so that their complexion, which is beautiful in youth, suffers later. They are clever at embroidery, however, and altogether the arts and crafts are the only things at which the Roumanians are really good.

Owing to the qualities above mentioned, the Roumanian is a most loyal subject, and there is not the faintest trace of an irredentist movement among them.

Such are the Austrian nations which are rooted in the soil. And now we come to that unhappy, uprooted race, the Jews.

This is not the place to speak fully of that phenomenon amongst nations, and of the singular circumstances that make it what it is. Suffice it to say that the 2,000,000 Jews living in Austria were only emancipated sixty years ago from the cruel laws invented for them exclusively, preventing them from holding land, penning them up in the Ghetti, and shutting them out from all means of getting their living except commerce. Naturally, in this short time, they could not all leave the business they had acquired a great aptitude for in the hundreds of years they had practised it almost to the exclusion of any other trade. The other roads open to them in Austria are very few, and set with thorns, in fact growing fewer and more difficult to pass as time goes on. For the springtide of liberalism which flooded the country in the sixties and seventies of the nineteenth century has ebbed away, and in its stead the tide of Anti-Semitism is swelling and rising still. To-day many professions, as that of army-officer, of state official, of judge, are as good as closed to the Jew: he is allowed to enter them, but he never advances beyond a certain point, reached by the Gentile after a few years' service. Besides, he is shown so plainly he is not wanted, that there are only very few who are so thick-skinned and hopeful as to

try these professions. Then there are other professions where the Jew, if exceptionally gifted, attains the same as his perfectly average Gentile colleague, only it takes him twice the time to do it: such are the careers of the University Lecturer, of the school teacher, and others. In the so-called free professions, those of the barrister and doctor, there are no barriers raised: though, of course, as is also the case with business men, the Christian will always prefer the Christian lawyer, doctor, or shopkeeper, so long as he is not convinced of being worse off with him. Naturally these callings are crowded with Jews.

The state of the educated minority, however, is comparatively good; they have a hard struggle for life, but they are well equipped for it as regards brains, and their sufferings are more or less of a spiritual nature. The great majority of the

The Galician Jew.

Austrian Jews, however, are almost paupers. Amongst the desperately poor Galician peasants they are only just able to eke out a living as shopmen, pedlars, carriers, drivers, public-house keepers, and artisans. But there are far too many of them in those poor and overcrowded businesses, and the most they can do is to hold their heads above water; many cannot manage even that, and go under; thousands emigrate every year, and the white slave dealers from over the sea, of course, find plenty of their horrible ware here. The conditions are getting worse and worse, as they are being mercilessly persecuted and hunted out of the few positions they are still holding. The Public-house Bill mentioned above was merely one instance of many.

It has been said by ignorant and malicious people that the Jews have themselves to thank for the miserable state they are in, that they do not care to work hard, that they consider manual work beneath them. That is an untruth pure and simple. They hold learning high. There are no "illiterates" among them, and the poorest and meanest reads his Bible in the original. But they are at the same time hard-working

people, and, for instance, one of the professions requiring the greatest muscular strength and daring, that of the raftsmen taking timber along the rivers, is practised by the Jews exclusively all down the Danube. In the oil-districts of Galicia an oil-shaft sometimes begins to burn, the flames leaping high at once and threatening the neighbouring shafts. Water is useless in these cases, and the only way to extinguish the fire is to throw earth into the hole. For this work there are *only Jews* to be had, nobody else is found willing to drag the great sacks close to that hell and risk their lives.

These two instances will suffice to show that the Jew has other good points besides those grudgingly admitted even by his foes—his genius for commerce, his hunger for learning, his talent for art, especially poetry, his ideal family life, his frugality and sobriety—that he is also capable and willing to do any kind of work, however hard and dangerous, so long as it will support him.

Their most unfavourable traits are terrible want of self-respect and proper pride. Of late, however, the national rejuvenation has taken hold of them, too, and is doing wonders in that respect. Theodor Herzl of Vienna, a man who had so far only been known as a charming and graceful writer, took up the idea of repatriating his scattered brethren in their ancestral home, and in the last ten years of his short life gave to the old dream of Zionism a political basis, and an organisation spanning the world—sure warrant for a prosperous development for the nucleus of a Jewish homestead existing already in Palestine.

## CHAPTER II

### PARTIES AND POLITICIANS

VIENNA correspondents of London newspapers are from time to time disgusted by the, to them, revolting and monstrous

**The English  
Constitution  
Imitated  
in Austria.**

opinion, that the English Constitution, that bulwark of freedom, that pride of every true Briton, is at the bottom of all the mischief that has been done during the last forty years

in Austria by unprincipled or misguided politicians. Whenever there is a free fight in the *Reichsrat* (House of Commons), whenever the machinery of lawmaking and government comes to a deadlock, whenever an unsavory story of bribery and corruption of politicians gets abroad, people are ready to cry out: "All this is owing to our having copied the English Constitution with its Parliament and other political customs! The House of Commons may be good enough for Great Britain with its more or less homogeneous, more or less enlightened population, but it will not work in Austria with her eight different nationalities and their diametrically opposed interests."

There certainly is a grain of truth in the statement that the English Constitution is to a great extent responsible for the Austrian *Abgeordnetenhaus* (House of Commons) and *Herrenhaus* (House of Lords). When, after the revolutionary days of 1848, Austria began to yield to the modern spirit and to feel its way towards some sort of government by representation, the liberal leaders naturally looked to England for practicable models. The English Constitution was at that time eagerly studied by every serious politician all over Europe, but nowhere with more admiration than in Austria. And when,

after the disastrous war of 1866, which necessitated a reconstruction of the Empire from the bottom upwards, the most conservative advisers of the Crown agreed to try representative government, the "Mother of Parliaments" suggested itself as the best of all possible models, and the English Parliament was, figuratively speaking, transferred from Westminster to the banks of the Danube with enthusiastic optimism.

Our optimism was premature. Only the fault did not lie with the English Constitution, but with the optimists. No politician has a right to expect miracles, and it would have been nothing short of a miracle if the English glove had fitted the Austrian hand. Of course it did not and could not fit.

The Austrian problem was too involved, too complex for so simple a remedy. What the Austrian middle class clamoured for was a safeguard against aristocratic privilege and the all-powerfulness of the Crown. So far the most optimistic expectations were fulfilled. Equality before the law has been established in Austria for half a century, nor have the most benighted reactionaries ever since attempted to question this principle. The equality of citizenship is a fact in Austria, much more so than in any other monarchic country of the world. In the Church, the Army and Navy, in the Civil Service, in the schools and Universities men of the lowest origin have climbed to the top of the ladder. There are instances of cobblers' sons having become archbishops; many a soldier is known to have risen from the ranks to the command of a regiment; shop-keepers in the smallest way of business have seen their boys in the gorgeous uniforms of privy councillors and cabinet ministers. For democratic equality the Austrian Army is hard to beat. Austria's position in this respect is unique. Austrian officers enjoy, among the middle classes, a popularity that is practically unparalleled

**The Austrian Problem.**

**A Democratic Monarchy.**

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF STATE  
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*Photo by*

**COUNT BERCHTOLD**  
*(Austrian Foreign Minister)*

*Exclusive News Agency*



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throughout the world. You see, the most roseate optimism, as far as equality goes, was justified by subsequent events. The Constitution has proved a most efficient safeguard against the arrogance of caste.

The days of the absolutist government by the Crown are gone, it would seem, for good and all. The Emperor Francis Joseph never had any leanings towards autocratic arbitrariness, and it is not too much to say that, of all Austrians, he is the most scrupulous adherent of the Constitution. There is a proviso in the Austrian Constitution, the ill-reputed section 14, which gives ministers the possibility, when Parliament is prorogued, in cases of emergency to transact business of state which, under ordinary circumstances, would require the sanction of the Commons. Whenever such a contingency arises the whole Administration meet in council and sign the statute which is published in the name of the Crown. Such provisional statutes must be subsequently passed in both the Lower and the Upper House. Treaties with foreign powers, ways and means, taxation, administration of justice, and other business of an urgent nature come under this head. During the eight years between 1897 and 1904 no less than seventy-four statutes of this kind were passed. Now, it is a well-established fact that the Emperor is strongly averse to making use of this emergency section which, for a time at least, does away with Parliamentary government. In times of Parliamentary deadlock he is always ready to exhaust all means of conciliation rather than have recourse to that odious paragraph.

But a Great Charter, such as was granted to the English ever so many hundred years ago, was not calculated to solve the Austrian problem. The aristocracy, it is true, has been shorn of its privileges to a certain extent, and autocracy was abolished. The upper middle class, the rich captains of industry and of

commercial enterprise, came rapidly to the fore. But what about the lower strata of the social fabric? What about the small tradesmen, the artisans, the working classes, the tillers of the soil? These had been completely left out of the reckoning when the Austrian statesmen of the type of the famous Schmerling, the so-called "Father of the Austrian Constitution," Lasser, Perthaler and Lichtenfels were at work reconstructing Austria and giving her a new lease of life. From the outset it was plain to the thinking minority that a representative Government based on the upper classes only, utterly disregarding the masses, could not be of any long duration. As a matter of fact, socialist aspirations such as shook England in the uneasy times of Chartism, made themselves felt in Austria as early as the first half of the nineteenth century, and the movement kept growing and spreading notwithstanding all the coercive measures of every successive Administration, until some twenty years ago, the movement came to a head, and made the Socialistic Party one of the strongest in Austria.

And apart from the clamouring of the masses for political representation, the *national aspirations* were a source of constant trouble and vexation, in fact the drop of wormwood in the cup of bliss which the new constitution held to the lips of the Liberals all over Austria.

The men who had worked all their lives in the interests of political freedom and who, after exhausting struggles against odds, after innumerable ups and downs, had succeeded in permeating both the Imperial family and the great feudal families such as the Schwarzenbergs, the Fürstenbergs, the Windischgrätzs, the Thuns, the Lobkowitzs, the Auerspergs and others with the idea of representative government, these very men had grown up in the tradition of German superiority over the Slavonic races, and therefore were naturally incapacitated from seeing that Austria, constituted as she is, could

not enjoy internal peace and prosperity, so long as she tried the impossible, *i.e.*, to make seven races give up their languages and national idiosyncrasies in favour of German. No doubt, Schmerling, Lasser, Perthaler and Lichtenfels, and at a later period men of world-wide reputation such as the geologist Eduard Suess, the whilom President of the Vienna Academy of Letters, were informed with the highest spirit of patriotism; theirs was an absolutely unselfish single-minded love of their country such as had inspired the enlightened well-meaning despotism of the great Emperor Joseph the Second. Theirs was a deep-seated conviction that the Germans in Austria had the sacred mission of educating the backward nations around them up to their standard of civilisation, and they were genuinely disgusted whenever the Poles, Czechs, Slovaks and other Slavs ungratefully rejected the blessings of German schools and German administrative officials. These "Centralists," as they were called, could not bring themselves to believe that Austria could possibly be governed otherwise than according to the old Centralist tradition, that is, by a German bureaucracy and through the vehicle of the German language. Their ideal of Austria was One Ruler, One Army, One Language. That the One Language was to be the German tongue, was, to them, a matter of course. They looked upon the Czechs, the Croats, the Poles, who refused to be swamped by the aliens, who could not fancy themselves swallowed up in a Germanic Austria, as enemies of the State. This attitude of mind which is strongly opposed to diversity of speech for reasons of State was quite common a generation ago and is far from being extinct even now. M. Paul Meyer, the great French scholar and Member of the French Institute who used to spend the summer months among the treasures in the British Museum, one day complained to an English *compère* that William the Conqueror had not been strong-minded enough to stamp out the English speech in the conquered island.

"What a blessing to the world," he exclaimed, "if the

Anglo-Saxon population had accepted French as their language. France, England, Scotland, Ireland, America, Australia, Africa—the whole world that matters would speak one language !”

It would have been grand, no doubt—for the French. So it would have been grand for the Germans if the eight nationalities of Austria could have made up their minds to give up their mother-tongues.

But they will not. There's the rub. The Poles with their great past, their brilliant old literature, and their religious fervour had never for a moment wavered in their allegiance to the national ideal. If they bore the yoke of the German school-master and Civil Servant, it was because it was so much lighter than what was imposed upon them by the Russian master. But a nation with a language of their own they were and meant to be for all time ; so when in the sixties the Polish aristocracy made their peace with the Emperor of Austria, the German invasion in Galicia rapidly melted away, and after a very short time it was *neige d'antan*. To-day Western Galicia is Polish to the bone.

Czech nationalism is of a later growth. The Thirty Years' War and the subsequent events had all but stamped out the spirit and language of the Slavs in Bohemia and Moravia. The upper classes affected the German language much as the Germans of Alsatia, in the times of Louis, affected the French, and as late as 1840 the number of cultured Czechs who stuck to their mother-tongue was extremely small. When some fervent nationalists were one day gathered at a meeting, one of them perpetrated the quasi-joke : “ If the roof fell in now, there would be no Czechs left.” But the zeal of the few made up for their want of numbers. Dobrowsky, Jungmann, Palacky, Safarik, Havlicek, Kollar, Celakowsky, and others worked with tireless energy at the nationalist revival. Their zeal has been crowned with marvellous success. Two

**Polish Aspirations.**

**Czech Nationalism.**

generations ago the Czechs were a horde of helots—to-day they are a nation.

The Slavs in the South were roused in the thirties of the nineteenth century by Ljudovit Gaj, and later on by Jellacic ; nowadays Laibach is the acknowledged centre of open Slav agitation, and the Germans keep receding before the onward movement of the Slovenes.

**The South Slav Revival.**

The most backward group of Slav nationality, the Ruthenians, are, under the leadership of able tacticians and zealous workers, on the point of coming by their own.

**Ruthenian Ambition.**

No man has done more to disintegrate the German party of Centralists, and to initiate the modern policy of conciliating the other nations than Count Edward Taaffe who, within fifteen years (from 1879 till 1893) actually put an end to the German upper class ascendancy in Austria and prepared the way to an understanding between the classes and masses on one hand, between the antagonistic races on the other.

**Count Edward Taaffe.**

Count Taaffe was the scion of an old Irish family long settled in Austria. The Count's father had been a cabinet minister during the *ancien régime*. Edward was a playmate of Francis Joseph, and when, ever so many years later, the Emperor met him in Prague, he was genuinely happy to have found him again. Taaffe was a whimsical, good-natured, easy-going Irishman, quick of brain and ready with his repartee, sharp-eyed, a student of character. He could be highly amusing if he chose. The Emperor liked and trusted him, and Taaffe deserved his confidence. He always called and actually considered himself first and foremost the servant of the Crown, His Majesty's Minister. He was not a statesman in the highest sense of the word. He was neither a thinker, like Gladstone or John Morley, nor a representative of principle and tradition like Lord Salisbury, nor even an orator. But he was full of resource. He knew how to disentangle

himself out of a hopeless situation, how to get out of a hole. Principles never burdened his back, thoughts of the future never troubled his mind. His was, as he laughingly acknowledged, a policy from hand to mouth; he managed "somehow to muddle through." And with all these shortcomings Taaffe, perhaps without his knowing it, became, in a sense, Austria's man of destiny. During his administration the franchise was extended to the lower middle classes, and a great many social laws for the benefit of the "small man," the artisan, the shopkeeper, the crofter, were passed. And the Slav members of the House of Commons who, before the advent of Taaffe, had sullenly stood aside, now actively took part in the Parliamentary debates, got seats on the ministerial bench, and became valuable advisers of the Crown. Taaffe knew how to hammer the different Slav sections of the Commons, the Poles, the Czechs, the Slovenes into the famous "iron ring" which held good for over a decade against all attempts on the part of the Germans to break it. Perhaps the ring would have yielded, if Count Taaffe had not had the skill to bring about an alliance between the Slavs and the Clericals of all nations. This alliance proved impregnable, and is practically unbroken to this day.

The German Liberals were pulverised, almost annihilated. This was too much for the Emperor, who, truth to say, never felt quite at home with his favourite Taaffe's friends and allies. What the Emperor wanted was a peaceable working together of Germans, Slavs and Clericals, not the exclusion of his own race from the government of the Empire. That is why he tried again and again to get a new Administration on these lines. The Germans were willing enough, and so were the Poles; only Count Hohenwart, the then leader of the Clerical Party, demurred,

"I am too old, Your Majesty," he excused himself.

The Emperor became very angry indeed.

“ You were young enough to pull down, but you feel too old to build up again.”

Prince Windischgrätz jumped into the breach. He failed. Count Kielmannsegg stepped in. He failed. Count Badeni,

**Short-lived  
Administrations.**

who had tamed a stubborn diet in Galicia, was called by the Emperor and hailed by the press as the saving man of the hour. He failed. Close on a dozen short-lived administrations followed on each other's heels without being able to solve the problem of a working alliance between the opposing elements of the Commons. Dr. Ernst von Koerber stood his ground longer than most of his predecessors since Count Taaffe had resigned. Instead of going on with a fight against odds, clever Dr. Koerber gave up fighting altogether. It was impossible to get together a working majority in the Commons; consequently he tried to do without the Commons. That was the secret of his success. Dr. Koerber's administration did excellent departmental work. Some of his colleagues in the cabinet were, like the political economist Böhm-Bawerk, scholars of European reputation. Although a Civil servant himself, Koerber hated red tape, and introduced a good many measures tending towards administrative reform. He did his best to tackle the national problems. He tried every means in his power to bring about a reconciliation between the Germans and Czechs—and failed.

Baron Paul Gautsch fared no better. But his administration will not be forgotten in the modern history of Austria.

**Universal  
Suffrage.**

He it was who prevailed upon the Emperor to give his consent to a startling reform of franchise—in 1907 universal man suffrage was introduced. Truly a leap in the dark. The House of Commons which was selected on the new lines did not justify the extravagant hopes which optimists had roused. The Austrian Parliament of to-day is as far as ever from having a stable working majority, nor have the national disputes been settled.



At present the conflicting national and social interests of the Austrian population are represented in Parliament by no less than about *twenty different clubs*.

**The Parliament of To-day.** There are the Germans—split into five groups. The so-called German Nationalists who try to keep up the old Liberal traditions are most of them the representatives of the German town population. Theirs is a difficult position. They are expected by their constituencies, most of them hard-working manufacturers and commercial people, to safeguard their class interest, to stem the rise of the Slavonic flood in Bohemia and Moravia, and at the same time to have the Empire at heart, its unity and strength. The members of this club are most of them cultured people, sober and amenable to reason, well-mannered in debate. But their very amenability and sweet reasonableness is a constant danger to their popularity, which is being undermined by the irresponsible extremists and rowdies who form the small, but vociferous Pan-Germanic Club.

**The German Clubs.** The Christian Socialist Germans, about eighty in number, have, their name notwithstanding, very little or nothing in common with Christian Socialism as it is understood in England. They are on the best of terms with the capitalists and the capitalist order of society; they are in league with Feudalism and its stanchest adherents. Agrarianism of the most selfish description is part of their political platform. The famine prices of milk, meat and bread in Austria are their work. A good many of their numbers have been branded as corruptionists of the Tammany Hall type. Their stronghold is Lower Austria and Vienna. The *ultra-montane* members pure and simple who hail from the Alpine provinces, such as Salzburg and Tyrol, follow their lead without actually approving of their methods. The present Burgomaster of Vienna, Dr. Weisskirchner, who owes his exceptionally brilliant career to the founder of the Christian Socialist party, the late

**The Christian Socialists.**



Photo by

"Kilophot," G.m.b.h., Vienna.

A NATIVE TYPE FROM BUKOWINA

TO YNU  
ABROUJA

Dr. Lueger, is generally considered the strongest personality in the Christian Socialist ranks.

In marked contrast to the Christian Socialist Club the fifty-two Social Democratic Germans fight Clericalism and Class Privilege tooth and nail. In uncompromising allegiance to principle, in discipline, in success they are the strongest party in the Austrian Parliament. With the high-minded Dr. Victor Adler at their head they are a tower of strength against the aspirations of clericalism, caste and class.

**The Social Democrats.**

The Poles who for close on half a century have been the pampered pets of every successive administration, are, in the House of Commons, gathered, but not united, under the hospitable roof of the Polish Club (*Polenklub, Kolo Polskie*)—seventy-one members. When this club was at the height of its power, the House and its destiny were in the hands of the Polish members. In those times the club preserved an iron discipline; its chairman was obeyed like a Roman dictator in the time of war. Every member bowed to the decrees of the club. This unity is a thing of the past. There are four groups in the club now. The Conservatives who represent the *szlachta* (nobility) are fought by the democrats, the people's party profess to work for a sort of progressive agrarianism, and the Pan-Poles are uncompromising adherents of the old national ideal, the reunion of the three Polands being their most cherished aspiration.

**The Polish Club.**

The Polish Socialists form a group of their own outside the Polish Club.

The Czechs, too, are gathered in one club, the *Jednoty Klub Cesky*, but they are no more homogeneous than the Poles. There is the Catholic group (seven members), there are the Agrarians (thirty-five members), there are the National Socialists (some sixteen members), and there is the Union of the Independent Progressives (seven members). The Czechs have the

**The Czech Club.**

reputation of providing the House with the most reckless obstructionists, and some of them seem to imitate the Irish members by affecting, in times of foreign tension, to side with the enemies of the country. Thus Kramarz, during the anxious time which followed the annexation of Bosnia, constantly denounced the Imperial policy and pleaded for Servia, to the unbounded disgust of the Germans and Poles. Among the Czech Progressives Masaryk is the most prominent Member of Parliament. The rights of man have in him a most ardent and eloquent exponent.

The Southern Slavs, although only twenty-seven in number, are split into several clubs, and so are the Ruthenians. The

**The South  
Slavs.**

Ruthenian Party or (as they prefer to be called) the Ukrainians have a very hard fight of it wresting national rights from the Poles.

The Ukrainians being of kin with the Russians, the court of Vienna laboured a long time under the fear that they were secretly in sympathy with the empire of the Czar. In consequence of that misunderstanding the Poles were given a free hand in dealing with the Ruthenians. Nikolai von Wassilko, one of the Ruthenian leaders, has changed all that. He and his party vie with the most fervent Tyrolese in demonstrations of zeal for Austria and the Emperor. This opportune patriotism has gone a long way towards emancipating the Ruthenians and giving them some sort of independent national existence.

**The  
Ruthenians.**

To the English mind, used as it is to the simple see-saw system of English party-government, it must seem the height of absurdity to try and manage a Parliament which falls into some twenty clubs. And to the English statesman, unless he happen to know Austria from a long sojourn in the country, it cannot but seem impossible that an empire which is composed of eight nations should go on existing for any length of time. We Austrians who see things from the inside, who have studied the history of this unique empire, know

better than that. The very co-existence of so many nations under the same rule is the *raison d'être* of Austria.

Austria has a mission in the near East. England and France seem to have forgotten this fact, but it is a fact all the same. It is Austria which has wrested Hungary, Transylvania, and other wide provinces from the clutches of barbarism; it is Austria which, for centuries and centuries

**Austria's  
Mission in the  
Near East.**

have borne the brunt of the battle against Asiatic raids, it is Austria that has spread order and civilisation, banishing chaos and anarch despotism. Austria actually stands for freedom of race, nationality and creed in the East of Europe, and we boast, rightly boast, that we have done for the conflicting interests of the manifold and variegated national fragments that have taken shelter under the wing of the Austrian eagle, something similar to what the English have achieved further afield. Austria has been and is still, the battleground where Poles and Ruthenians, Germans and Czechs, Magyars and Croats fight it out, not in the old fashion, popular still in Servia and Turkey, by barbarous bloodshed and devastation, but according to the English fashion by ballot and parliamentary debate. A large section of the English public still takes its notions of Austria from the literature of the fifties and sixties of the last century, when mid-Victorian literature rang with indignation against Austrian oppression in Italy. All this is over and done with. Austria of to-day no more resembles the Austria of that time than present England resembles the Great Britain of the Chartist Riots. There is hardly a spot on God's earth where conflicting races enjoy as much freedom as the Poles, Ruthenians, Czechs, Roumanians, Croats, and Armenians in the Austrian Empire. Leave the welter of Austrian nationalities to themselves, and the world will be set aflame by the news of fierce struggles surpassing in extent and barbarity the atrocities of the Armenian type.

## CHAPTER III

### EDUCATION

OWING to the national friction Austria has remained behind the times in many respects. As regards education, however, it stands high amongst European nations, and, were it not for the terrible handicaps it is again suffering from on the part of the Clericals, it would doubtless rank with the best. Perhaps one of the reasons for this comparatively fast development is the very rivalry between the different nations, acting as a spur in this one instance.

To the Englishman the most remarkable features of the Austrian system of education are its severe uniformity and the absence of boarding colleges—all the schools and colleges, with very few exceptions, being day schools. These features, however, it shares with most continental systems, those of Germany and France among the number.

Closely connected with these characteristics is the great amount of learning acquired, and the comparatively low standard in physical training.

The elementary school had existed for a long time as a Catholic and German institution, when the Act of 1869 freed it from the trammels of the Church, and nationalised it: to-day the children in an elementary school must be taught in the language of the majority attending it, so that even in some Vienna districts closely populated by Czech immigrants, there are Czech schools.

#### The Elementary School.

The primary schools are supported by the communities, the State furnishing only the teachers' seminaries, and a school must be founded wherever there are forty children over six years of age who would have to walk more than two miles to the nearest existing school. Yet, in spite of this rule, and in spite of compulsory instruction (for children aged from

LEAF OF  
"KILOPHOT"



Photo by

"Kilophot," G.m.b.h., Vienna.

A DALMATIAN GROUP



To view  
Algebra

six to twelve or fourteen) being already more than forty years old, in some backward provinces, especially the Carpathians and the Carst, up to 70 per cent. of the population are still unable to read or write; while in the Sudetians and the Alps, where in winter the little boys and girls have to wade through the deep snow and to coast to school without path or light in the bitter winter mornings, there is not even one per cent. of "illiterates." Perhaps nothing illustrates so well the different standard of Czechs and Germans on the one hand, and the remaining Slav and Latin nations on the other, than this one fact.

In the country the primary schools have always been conducted on the co-education system, simply because separate small classes of boys and girls would have been too costly. But now that the modern tendency is all for co-education as a wholesome factor in school-life, many private schools in the big towns are teaching boys and girls together with excellent results, while the parish schools in town are still holding back.

Of late another modern feature has found its way into the primary school: the Swedish Sloyd lessons in handicraft.

This is practised in all the town schools now, "Sloyd." the boys enjoying the carpentering, joining, book-binding, etc., immensely. In the village schools gardens are being laid out for the children, and experiments in fruit and vegetable growing carried out successfully.

The kindergarten has only lately been taken in hand by the parishes in the towns, but now every district has several.

And, indeed, in the country, where the children are used to all kinds of manual occupations, and where they generally have all the supervision needed, because they are always running after some member of the family in the house, the garden, or the field, it would be superfluous. Besides the parochial kindergarten there are many private ones, where sometimes the babies are taught English and French while playing.

An interesting modern institution, too, is that of the *Ferienhorte*, which are imitations of the English Boys' Brigades, and an immeasurable blessing for the stunted city boys. The little girls also have play-grounds in the woods near Vienna, where they are taken on Sundays and in the holidays, but there are not nearly so many for them as for the boys.

The school teachers are excellently grounded, both theoretically and practically, and generally all that can be desired. Of late the influence of the Clerical Party is at work. Their aim, at which they are working together with the Christian Socialists, is to get all the schools back into their hands.

The Austrian public schools for boys are mostly supported by the State, some few otherwise. (The girl's high-schools are mostly private.) They were reorganised sixty years ago by Count Thun, who changed them from the old Latin Schools for Gentlemen's Sons into popular schools preparing for all kinds of studies apart from the classics, introducing science and other subjects which had been barred before.

**The  
Secondary  
Schools.**

His laudable principles have been followed in the more recent development also, but even to-day these schools are still hampered by their origin. So long as nothing but the humanities were studied there, the boys had plenty of time to go as deeply into these matters as was required of them. But instead of cutting down the amount of classical reading, history, etc., to make room for the all-important subject of science, for drawing, etc., these new matters were simply *added* to the curriculum. The result is that now the grammar school boys are terribly overburdened, having very little time for outdoor games, music, their private hobbies, in fact recreation of any kind. In addition to all this, the final examination, which opens the doors of the Universities, is a very strict one, and the last year is always one of terribly hard cramming even for the best pupils.

Apart from this sort of public school, the *Gymnasium*,

there is a modern type of secondary school, also founded by Graf Thun, the *Realschule*, which chiefly prepares for the Technical College. Instead of Latin, Greek, and Philosophy, French and English are taught there, more mathematics, and drawing. The boys are not so hard worked, and it is possible for them to go to the University, too, after their finals, on condition that they pass an additional examination there to show that they have mastered Latin to a certain extent.

A third type, the *Realgymnasium*, is a medium between the two: instead of Greek, French is taught, and the boys have the freedom both of the University and of the Technical High School.

There are other experiments made in the direction suggested by this latter type, and it is to be hoped that a reorganisation of the public schools on this basis will soon be effected. There is at present a strong movement in favour of these reforms. But the conservative elements, especially those teachers whose subjects (Greek, Ancient History, Philosophy) are in danger of being restricted, do what they can to keep up the present state of things. There is a standing quarrel between these two parties, sometimes very interesting to watch, as really great men are to be found on both sides, sometimes rather amusing for the impartial onlooker.

#### The Reform Movement.

The girl student is, in Austria, a product of recent social developments, and the Educational Department has not had the time yet to tackle the problem with much chance of success. Girls are admitted to pass final examinations with a view to matriculating in the university as students of letters, of science, or of medicine, the study of law being inaccessible to them as yet. But the State which pays for and manages all the Secondary Schools for boys does absolutely nothing for the higher education of girls. We have grammar schools (*Gymnasien*) for girls, but they are all of them private

#### Girls' High Schools.

affairs subject to the inspection and approval of the State authorities.

In fact, the State does not encourage the girl students. The State is in favour of our girls qualifying for good housewives. That evidently is the meaning of the "Lyceum," a new type of Girls' High School which was inaugurated some ten years ago by the Educational Department. The "Lyceum" is calculated to take over middle class girls from elementary schools at the age of ten, to give them a smattering of letters, science, and modern languages, and to dismiss them as a finished article at the age of sixteen. This new type is a failure. It is generally viewed as an impossible betwixt and between, and it is likely to be abolished or fundamentally changed in a very short time.

The teaching methods employed in the secondary schools are excellent and quite modern. Especially as regards the teaching of languages and history they compare most favourably with the average English school. The secondary school teachers are generally very well up in their subjects scientifically, but the pedagogic side of their education is comparatively neglected. They have to study four years at the University and to pass the teachers' examination, which is more difficult than the degree for doctor of philosophy. But they have not much opportunity for learning to *teach*, as they need only attend the lessons of an older colleague for one year, occasionally trying their hand themselves, and often even this single year is not required, and they take to teaching immediately on coming from college.

Besides these secondary schools for general education there are a great many special ones: commercial schools, trade schools, agricultural schools, forest schools, the famous art and craft school (*Kunstgewerbeschule*) and the Academy of Music in Vienna, and many others. The two last named draw a great many foreign students to Vienna each year.

**Training of  
Masters.**

**Specialized  
Schools.**

The Austrian Universities are among the oldest on the continent, some of them having been founded in the thirteenth century. They were reorganised on modern principles (the Universities of the German Empire serving as models) by the same Graf Thun who did such good work in the case of the primary and secondary schools. They are supported by the State, who also appoints the lecturers, though the University itself proposes them, and the Government, as a rule, takes its advice.

**The Universities.**

At present Austria has eight Universities proper, five of them German, two Polish and one Czech. The Italians, the Ruthenians, and the South Slavs are trying to get their own Universities also, and in spite of great difficulties they are likely to have their way soon. At present there are thousands of them studying in Vienna, Cracow and Innsbruck.

In consequence of this the national quarrels are perpetually coming to the front, and it is a sorry fact that they are regarded, by one type of student at least as far more important than their study. The Austrian students are organised in different societies according to their nationality, their religion, their political views, and these organisations play a far greater part in the life of the University than the learned societies. There are always duels going on between the members of the different organisations, sometimes bloody fights between whole groups in the Universities themselves. It has happened more than once that the University of Vienna had to be closed on account of these continual fights. And the position of *Rektor*, that is, the Governor who is elected yearly by the professors from amongst themselves, requires a great deal of energy and tact.

**The Students.**

As mentioned above, the Austrian Universities, unlike the English and American ones, are places for lecturing and research work only—the students and masters do not live in college, but in their homes, and there are almost no scholarships to help the poorer class of students. But as

the fees for lectures are very low, the poorest, in fact, getting them for nothing, studying at the University is not an expensive thing, compared to English conditions. Besides, many of the students support themselves by giving lessons.

As regards popular education, England has been Austria's model, particularly in respect of the University Extension Movement. Considering that the beginning of the work here falls only into the year 1885, Austria, and Vienna particularly, may indeed be proud of what has been accomplished.

**Popular  
Education.**

It is characteristic of the conditions of Vienna public life that the Christian-Socialist Town Council has gradually withdrawn almost the whole of its support from this perfectly unpolitical work, reducing the monetary contribution to next to nothing, and taking away all the lecturing rooms they had lent to the Society for Popular Education (*Volksbildungsverein*).

They were mistaken, however, in hoping to mar the work. Rich and poor vied with each other in donations to the Society, the University helped in every way, members streamed in from all sides, and to-day it stands secure, quite independent of the local authorities.

Vienna has two Working Men's Colleges (*Volksheim* and *Volksbildungshaus*), a University Extension (*Volkstümliche Universitätskurse*), another institution standing between the two (*Urania*), and many Toynbee Halls, Popular Libraries, and a People's Theatre (*Freie Volksbühne*), apart from countless minor institutions of the kind.

The Working Men's Colleges include elementary and secondary teaching as well as lectures on the University plane.

**The Working  
Men's Colleges.** There are demonstrations, experiments and stereopticon pictures to enliven the lectures.

The teachers are students, board and high-school teachers, and University lecturers. There are also concerts and recitals. On Sundays there are performances and lectures not only in the two chief buildings, but many schools hospitably open their doors to receive the thousands

of hearers eager to improve and enjoy themselves. The public consists for the greater part of working-people; the smaller half belongs equally to all the other classes. Women—in contrast to the English institutions of the kind—are admitted, and they eagerly avail themselves of the opportunity: they form 45 per cent. of the students, though it is significant that they frequent the humanistic courses and lectures (languages, history, art) far more than the scientific courses.

There are a great many laboratories, thoroughly well equipped all of them, some even better than those of the University, as for instance the one for experimental psychology.

The teachers and students are in close contact, and several groups of them have been formed in the *Volkshelm*. It is quite interesting to see what subjects have brought about these unions or clubs. They are: Political science, philosophy, English, literature, art, history, natural science, music and photography.

Every year a several week's journey is undertaken, and these holiday travels, where lecturers and students come to know each other much better than can ever be the case in the regular course of things, are such a success, that the University has begun to imitate them.

In the University Extension only scientific work is done, and by University lecturers exclusively. The greatest scientists and scholars are proud to help.

**The University Extension.** This keeps the Austrian Extension on a higher plane than the corresponding English institutions. Here also women are admitted as well as men.

The *Urania* is an institution much like the *Volkshelm*, but founded on business principles instead of charity, and thus obliged to charge entrance fees, making them as low as possible, however, and attracting chiefly the middle classes. It has also built an excellent observatory, the only public one in Vienna, and



very well frequented. Its picturesque building, on the embankment in the centre of the town, has become quite a characteristic feature of Vienna.

The Toynbee Halls, on the other hand, offering tea and biscuits without any charge whatever after the lecture, appeal most to the poorest of the poor. They are kept by the Jewish Lodges.

There being no free Parish Libraries in Austria, the Society for Popular Education has founded Free Libraries, too, and this has been, indeed, a blessing. When it opened its first branch, in 1887, twenty-seven volumes daily were borrowed; to-day the number is 6,000. It is of interest that the music department is the most frequented in the world, a fact very characteristic of music-loving Vienna.

The Society for Popular Education is extending its work in all branches to the provinces also, but so far only the industrial centres have been won over. There wonderful results are being achieved, especially by the extension lectures.

## CHAPTER IV

### COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

THE diversity of production in the several Austrian countries, as well as the position of the monarchy between the industrial states in the West and North-West, and the agricultural states in the East and South-East have favoured an excellent development of commerce and traffic. Austria is double-faced in its economical relation to its neighbours: it exports raw materials to the industrial states, importing some from the agricultural ones, while it imports industrial articles from the industrial states and exports a great deal to the agricultural ones. Since the Suez Canal has been opened, Austria's oversea trade also has been steadily growing in importance, so that to-day one-fifth of the foreign trade is carried on by sea. This is a good deal when the fact of Austria's having such a very small strip of seaboard is taken into account.

The trade traffic in Austria is also carried on by means of the great natural waterways, especially the Danube and the Elbe. There are 6,500 km. of river used by small boats and rafts, and 1,300 km. used by steam-boats.

Railroads are continually in building; especially in the Alps new lines are opened every year. At present Austria has 120,000 km. of railway lines.

The tendency of the Austrian trade (which is under tariff protection) is the development in the over-sea direction. Up to a short time ago the trade-traffic went almost exclusively to European countries, but this is changing rapidly, so that to-day 25 per cent. of the import and 10 per cent. of the export (together seven milliard kronen) come and go to transatlantic countries.

At present Austria is at the beginning of a process which

is rapidly changing her from an agricultural into an industrial State. The conditions, however, are different in the different groups of countries, Dalmatia, for instance, having scarcely begun with the process, while Bohemia is almost at the stage of England. Thus we may speak of these groups separately.

In the Alps the conditions for the development of industry on a large scale are favourable in so far as the raw material is plentiful; but the population is thin as yet and the highways of traffic are still restricted to the chief valleys, though now they are beginning to be carried into the smaller ones.

**Industry in  
the Alps.**

Of those branches of industry which are using the raw material found at home, the iron industry is by far the most important. It has grown to be an industry on a large scale, working with the best of technical aid, and has almost completely supplanted the small workshops. The chief centres of the iron industry are Lower Austria with Neunkirchen, Ternitz, Waidhofen and Scheibbs, and Styria with Eisenerz, Steyr (which is often called the Austrian Birmingham), and many others. From needles to the most complicated machinery, everything is manufactured, but for exporting purposes sickles, scythes and rifles are of chief account. The rifle factory of Steyr is the largest in Europe.

**Iron  
Industries.**

**Breweries.**

Gin and beer are manufactured everywhere, the latter especially round Vienna.

Famous paper mills are Schöglmühl in Lower and Steyrermühl in Upper Austria, but there are a great many others.

**Paper  
Mills.**

Of textile industries, linen and wool-spinning and weaving is of importance, chiefly as a home industry, while famous homespunns are manufactured in Tyrol and Vorarlberg. The cotton manufacture, though it is obliged to get its raw material from oversea, is next in importance to the iron industry. Its chief centre lies in Lower Austria, round Wiener Neustadt.

**Textile  
Industries.**



Photo by

HARBOUR, ZARA

"Kilophot," G.m.b.H., Vienna.

TO VIAU  
AUBOYUSO

The industry of the Carst countries is only a beginning as yet, with the exception of Upper Carniola, where iron and other factories centre round Assling. For the rest there is chiefly home-industry: liquors, especially the famous Maraschino, being made in Dalmatia, and carpets, incrusted weapons and other products of applied art in Bosnia-Herzegowina. The Government is, however, doing its best to encourage industry on a larger scale, and several foundries, sugar and tobacco factories, etc., have already sprung up in recent years.

**Industry in the Carst.**

The Sudetian countries, Bohemia especially, are the most advanced as regards industry, a fact which is explained by their wealth of raw material. The good example of the neighbouring German Industrial States has no doubt had something to do with it also.

**Industry in the Sudetians.**

There are flour mills all over the country and though the Hungarian competition is a grave danger, still they are flourishing.

Breweries, sugar refineries and spirit distilleries thrive all over the country. Bohemian beer is famous, and especially the brand "Pilsen" is known and appreciated all over the world.

Leather and wood industries are of importance also, especially the manufacture of matches.

There are numbers of paper mills, especially in Northern Bohemia, round Hohenelbe.

Tobacco is prepared in Bohemia in State factories, but it gets its material from abroad, while all the other industries named so far depend only on the native soil.

The most important branch of industry in the Sudetians, however, is the textile manufacture, which has grown to such an extent that the raw material provided by the countries themselves forms but a tiny fraction of the material used.

Cotton mills are numberless, the chief centres being Reichenberg and Warnsdorf, the Upper Elbe country, Prague, Hohenstadt, Freudenthal.

The wool industry flourishes chiefly in Reichenberg, Warnsdorf, Brünn and Bielitz.

Linen is manufactured in Trautenau, Rumburg, Asch, Freiwaldau, and as a product of home industry all over the three countries.

The foundries are of great importance everywhere, the centres of the iron industries being the same as those of mining—the country round Prague, Pilsen, Brünn, Witkowitz. In Aussig there is a thriving chemical industry.

Bohemian glass and porcelain is well known all over the earth, even in Central Africa and Australia and India, where the natives eagerly buy the Gablonz beads and bangles. The finest and most precious glass and porcelain wares are made in Winterberg, Karlsbad and Elbogen.

The Carpathian countries are still chiefly agricultural, only on the Silesian frontier there is a district where woollen  
 Industry in  
 the Carpathians.      stuffs are manufactured on a large scale,  
 with Biala, the sister town of Bielitz, for its  
 centre. The other branches of industry  
 beginning to be developed are spirit distillery, sugar refinery,  
 beer-brewing and tobacco manufacture.



Photo by

"Kilophot," G.m.b.h., Vienna.

A DALMATIAN



TO THE  
ALABAMA

## CHAPTER V

### AGRICULTURE AND MINING

**AUSTRIA** could, until quite lately, be rightly named among the chief agricultural States of Europe, and though it is now rapidly developing into an industrial country,

**Austria most Fertile.**

still 60 per cent. of its population are peasants. Apart from the Alps and the Carst the Austrian lands are amongst the most fertile of Europe, and even including these comparatively barren regions, only 5 per cent. of the whole area is unproductive—35 per cent. being corn land, 33 per cent. timber, and 27 per cent. pasture.

Owing to the great differences in climate, the Austrian products are most varied, ranging from all kinds of grain and hardy fruit to such Southern products as

**Great Variety of its Products.**

rice, olives, oranges and chrysanthemums. As regards corn, Austria is still among the export countries, ranging only after Russia and Germany in respect to the quantity of grain produced, and in the quality of its wine, though there is less and less every year in consequence of the ravages of the phylloxera, it comes immediately after France, standing higher than Italy or Spain.

The position of the peasant population is very different in the different provinces. They were freed from personal bondage by Joseph II. at the end of the

**The Peasantry.**

eighteenth century, but the taxes and the statute labour (*Robot*) that were claimed from them by the squires remained until the middle of the nineteenth century, when the former serfs were turned into small holders, and "freehold bonds" were given out by the Government to indemnify the landlords. These were paid partly by the peasants, partly by the countries, and partly by the State, and it is remarkable that this was done more quickly in Austria than in any other European state. Though the

results were excellent in the more developed countries, as the Alps and the Sudetians, the reform proved a doubtful blessing in Galicia, where the peasants for the greater part held such tiny bits of ground only that they were not able to keep them free of mortgages, and many had at last to sell them outright. Thus Galicia has a numerous proletariat of field-labourers to-day.

Government has done good work in preventing the cutting up of small landowners' property by heritage. The laws forbidding this parcelling up are only carried through gradually, though, as the provinces are independent in these matters, a good deal of opposition has to be overcome in the diets at first.

On the whole, Austrian husbandry is in rather a primitive stage still. Except in the Sudetians, where machinery has been in use for many years already, the peasantry is working by hand still. It is nothing unusual to see threshing done by flail, and the cutting and binding of the corn is scarcely ever done mechanically, except on large estates. In the Alps one may even see peasants *hoeing* steep bits of ground, where the plough cannot be used. Galicia and Dalmatia especially are most backward, in the latter province, in spite of its wonderful climate, only 11 per cent. being properly under cultivation, while Galicia is cultivated in such a primitive way that not half of what it could yield is got out of the soil, manuring, for instance being greatly neglected. Bohemia and Moravia present quite a different aspect. These countries are wonderfully well cultivated, and that by smaller holders as well as by the great lords with their model farms, such as the Heir Apparent and Prince Schwarzenberg.

Of grain fruits, every conceivable kind is grown in the Monarchy, from corn in the North to maize and rice in the South.

But the chief grain for export has become **Cereals, etc.** barley, of which the finer qualities are eagerly sought for by the foreign breweries. There are, too, large malt-houses all over the country, and Austrian

malt is exported not only to Germany and Sweden, but also to Central and South America and Japan.

Masses of peas and beans which are grown on a large scale in the Sudetians and Galicia are also exported.

Potatoes and sugar beets are cultivated everywhere, the latter especially in the Sudetians, and in spite of the immense consumption by the distilleries and the sugar industry there is no need to import any of these.

Hops are grown in Bohemia and Lower Austria, and they also form an article of export.

Market gardening is done on a large scale near all the towns, and in Bohemia whole districts live by it. It is gradually being taken up by women too, and one school for lady gardeners has just been founded in Vienna. On the whole, however, Austria cannot compete with Germany in this respect.

As regards fruit, Austria ranks high. It is grown all over the country, but the most famous fruit-growing districts are Leitmeritz in Bohemia, and above all,

**Fruit.** Southern Tyrol, Bozen particularly, where delicious apples and all kinds of fruit for candying are grown. The orchards near Bozen are all dotted white with little muslin sacks: for every apple is carefully sown into such a bag when quite small, to prevent insects from hurting it. In Bosnia plums are grown and either dried or made into *Slivovitz*, a kind of brandy. In Dalmatia cherries are made into *Maraschino* liqueur. Cider is made everywhere, and almost every peasant has his own press.

Austria is, after Russia, the richest country of Europe as regards forests. And timber is the most important article of export. The woods in Austria are very

**Forestry.** carefully tended. In the Sudetians the large landowners never cut more than the after-growth brings; this ideal state is not reached anywhere else, but still the woods in the Alps and the Carpathians are beautifully kept, and as has been mentioned before, they are not

only a profitable culture here, but a necessity, forming the most effective protection against avalanches and torrent floods. The logs are washed down from the mountains by these torrents, locks also being often used. And the opening of these picturesque little lakes after all the timber has been gathered in them, is a most interesting affair. It is a grand sight when these masses of logs come crashing down with the foaming torrent. Where there is not enough water, or where it is too far away, they are simply slid down a steep incline, a so-called *Riese*, where a few trees have been cut to leave a path for these logs. These *Riesen* generally lead to a brook, from where the timber goes on its usual course.

Where there is water enough there are a great many saw-mills, and the logs are cut on the spot. Sometimes there are mills all along a little brook, at every few steps—because every farmer has his own saw for his own lot of wood. These merry, noisy little mills are a charming and picturesque feature of the loneliest chimes in the Alps.

The only districts where there is scarcely any wood are the Carst provinces, the inhabitants having ruthlessly cut down everything and ruined their country. Government is doing its best to afforest these regions, and a good many visible results have been achieved.

Cattle are raised everywhere, and breeding them is indeed the chief occupation of the Alpine population. Some Alpine races are really first-rate, while on the whole quantity is aimed at more than quality. Dairy farming, particularly, though the conditions are quite as favourable as in Switzerland, is much behind the times.

The Austrian horses, however, are the best that can be found anywhere, especially those that are bred in Galicia. A fine breed of dray-horses comes from Salzburg, too. As regards quantity, only Russia and Germany produce more horses than Austria.

Small cattle is not now of much importance: goats ruin the young woods, and sheep are not very profitable as wool has grown so cheap. Besides, mutton is not in great demand in Austria, except in the South Slav countries. So few sheep are kept. Pigs are raised on a large scale only in the plains, but every peasant has a few pigs for his own wants in the mountains as well. Poultry for eating is raised chiefly in Styria, while for egg-laying purposes English hens are often imported. Compared with the poultry-raising of Hungary, the Austrian efforts dwindle to nothing.

Austria is very rich in game, and sportsmen will find it quite worth while to come from far off for shooting purposes.

It may as well be mentioned here that fox-hunting in the English style is unknown in Austria. There are bears still in the Southern Alps and in the Carpathians, and lynx and wild cat in plenty. Foxes, badgers, otters, all kinds of martens are found all over the Monarchy. There are wolves in Krain and in the Carpathians, where hundreds are still shot every year. Not so very long ago a professor at the University of Czernowitz, the Capital of the Bukowina, was followed to his door by a wolf—he lived on the outskirts of the town—and badly mauled. Stags and roes are plentiful everywhere—the latter coming almost into the suburbs of Vienna—and hares the same. Even wild boars are still found in the Carpathians, and the chamois hunt, that most exciting sport, may be practised anywhere in the Alps. Only wild birds are rarer, eagles especially having almost died out except in the South, near the coast.

Fishing is practised all over the country, the trout in the mountain streams offering good sport. But it cannot compare with English fishing—or at least the

**Fishing.** interest taken in it cannot compare with that taken in this sport in England. Sea-fishing is not of much importance either, the coast being so small.

A good many corals and sponges are brought up from the banks in the Adriatic, though.

As regards the variety of its mining products, Austria stands first among the European States, **Mining.** second only to Russia as regards their quantity.

In the Alps mining has always played a great part in the life of the people, bringing economical possibilities to the loneliest valleys. It is, however, worthy of **Mining in the Alps.** note that since the Middle Ages a great change has taken place : up to the seventeenth century it was chiefly precious metals that were sought for. Now this branch of mining has been more or less abandoned, the price having sunk since the American and Australian fields were discovered, and it is chiefly iron, brown coal, and salt that are being produced.

The salt is mostly won by first dissolving it in water, and then vaporising or boiling it. The largest beds are found in Upper Austria and Styria, the so-called Salzkammergut, where the salt water (*Sole*) is also used for cures, as for instance in Ischl, the famous watering-place where the Emperor and his family go every year.

Iron is won chiefly in Styria, but also in the other Alpine countries, and coal the same.

The loam near Vienna is also of great importance, and the brick-kilns in this district are unequalled by any in the world.

The Carst countries are not yet fully opened up. So far they are famous only for their quicksilver **Mining in the Carst.** (in Idria) and large beds of brown coal in Carniola.

The Sudetian countries possess the richest mining fields, 50 per cent. of the whole production of the Monarchy coming from Bohemia, and 20 per cent. from Silesia.

**Mining in the Sudetians.** Besides iron, a great many other ores are found, for instance urane, from which radium is won. Coal there is in plenty, in fact 90 per cent. of the

Austrian coal is found in the Sudetian countries. The chief coal districts there are Karwin, Ostrau, Kladno, Boskowitz. Salt is the only mineral not found in Bohemia.

In the Carpathians the chief products are salt and petroleum. The former is found almost everywhere, but the most famous mines are Bochnia and Wieliczka. The latter

**Mining in  
the Carpathians.** is quite unequalled in beauty and picturesqueness, and as well worth visiting as, for instance, the grottos of Adelsberg. Petroleum is found especially near Boryslaw and Justanowice, and it is of interest that the shafts are mostly in the hands of English companies. There are also coal and iron, and other minerals, but these are of very little account.

Austria is able to export considerable quantities of brown coal and of mineral waters ; its production and consumption are equal as regards quicksilver, lead, iron and salt ; and it is obliged to import pit-coal and all the metals except the two above named. On the whole, it will have been seen that Austria's natural resources are very great and diversified, but that not enough is done either by the Government or by the population to utilise them properly.

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## CHAPTER VI

### GERMAN LITERATURE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

It is not only lack of space which forces us to ignore the non-German literatures flourishing on Austrian soil—but chiefly the fact that the Slav and Romanic authors this side the frontier are only tributaries of the great rivers flowing beyond, having little or no connection with what we term Germano-Austrian literature.

For there is no "Austrian Literature," in a strictly literal sense, and even the German writers in Austria we cannot claim for our own exclusively—except the popular dramatists, who have gone their own distinctly Austrian ways. For the rest, literary Austria is as much one with the German States as literary Galicia with the Poland beyond the frontier.

For the Austrian Drama the nineteenth century has been a golden age. It has brought forth one of the greatest dramatists of all times—Grillparzer, and several exponents of the *Volksstück* (a name comprising all modern plays in which men and women of the people are the chief characters) unequalled by those of any other nation.

#### The Drama.

Franz Grillparzer was born in Vienna in 1791, the son of a pedantic barrister and a high-strung, artistic mother, who subsequently died by her own hand. He was to become a barrister, but had to give up his studies, as the father died and the family became quite impoverished. He accepted a post as librarian at the Imperial Library in Vienna (*Hofbibliothek*), and in spite of grumbling and dissatisfaction on both sides he kept it until 1856, when he retired. In 1872 he died.

#### Franz Grillparzer.

Quiet as the outward circumstances of his life were, his inner man was constantly shaken by storms. His was a strangely melancholy, not very lovable nature, and the strangest part of it was his relation to women. He was easily inflamed, and cooled quite as easily, and there were many women in his life—yet he remained true to the first real love of his youth, in a way which, nevertheless, ruined her happiness for ever. She was Kathi Fröhlich, the youngest of four sisters in the merry Schubert-Schwind circle, famous for their beauty, their talents, and their warm hearts, and the two fell in love with each other when quite young. They were engaged to be married, but the capricious, unruly and rather selfish young man could not make up his mind either to give up his freedom or to break with the girl. He dallied round her, for ever quarrelling, making it up, leaving her and returning, until she was an old maid and he a cantankerous old bachelor, when he came to live with the sisters as a humdrum paying guest!

His  
Love-story.

Grillparzer's dramatic career, apart from some youthfully-bombastic work, began with a tragedy of fate, "Die Ahnfrau" ("The Ancestress"), full of ghosts, bloodshed and worse, but showing remarkable dramatic skill and a masterful handling of the verse. The superbly passionate and lyrical language does not fail to draw tears to this day, even though the absurdity of the play is past dispute. It was a great success, but the critics were severe on the complicated plot with its atrocities, and the youthful poet in a fit of pique made up his mind to show them that he could make the simplest story into a thrilling drama by his handling.

"The  
Ancestress."

That is how "Sappho," with its lack of incident, must be explained. The poet has almost made good his word—the play is certainly a masterpiece (Grillparzer himself liked it best of all), and the inspiration of the poet as well as his fine language show at their best here. On the other hand, its meagre plot is a

"Sappho."

serious drawback, strongly felt in the theatre; the first act drags exceedingly. The story of the poetess' love for the unworthy boy who betrays her with the simple little slave Melitta, is more or less Grillparzer's own invention. The characterisation is excellent, especially the figure of the innocently guilty girl is pathetically life-like.

"Sappho" is the first of a series of Grecian plays. The others are the trilogy "Das Goldene Vliess" ("The Golden Fleece"), with the heroine Medea, in her terrible grandeur one of the most tragic characters ever set on the stage, and the pathological love-idyll of "Hero und Leander."

It is in the historical plays, however, that Grillparzer's dramatic genius is at its best. The composition is perfect, the characters are carefully studied and most convincing in every detail, and the dialogue is admirably adapted to the different individualities.

**Historical  
Plays.**

The first and best of these plays is "König Ottokars Glück und Ende" ("King Ottokar's Rise and Fall") in which Rudolf of Habsburg and his great adversary are contrasted. The first act is unrivalled in its grandiose gradation, full of dramatic impulse and energy. The other plays in this series are "Ein treuer Diener seines Herrn" ("A Faithful Servant of his Master"), from the Hungarian history; "Weh' dem der lügt" ("Woe to Him Who Lies"), one of the best comedies ever written, full of fun and wit; "Ein Bruderzwist im Hause Habsburg" ("A Brothers' Feud in Habsburg"), "Die Jüdin von Toledo" ("The Jewess of Toledo"), and "Libussa." The last three were never published by Grillparzer—they were found in his desk after his death. He had been so disgusted by the indifferent reception of "Ottokar" and the rude (and to-day, inexplicable) hooting at the performance of "Weh' dem der lügt," that he resolved never to publish anything again. To this resolve he stuck, though he lived to see the resurrection of all his former works by Laube, manager of the *Burgtheater*, and though they brought him

European fame: it came too late, and found him indifferent. To-day "Die Jüdin" is one of the most popular historical plays in Vienna, and a favourite part of all young actresses.

One more play of Grillparzer's must be mentioned: it is the romantic tale "Der Traum ein Leben" ("The Dream a Life") vivid and poetic in plot and diction, and full of humour.

"The Dream,  
a Life."

There is no doubt that Grillparzer is the greatest dramatist of the century, one of the three successors of Schiller and Goethe. For though he affected to despise him Grillparzer was certainly influenced by Schiller as well as by his adored Goethe and his beloved Shakespeare. Besides Goethe it was the great Spanish dramatists who held him most enthralled, and the influence of Calderon is plainly traceable in several of his plays. If Grillparzer did not soar nearly so high as his great models, it was less lack of genius than the backboneless period to which he belonged, the unhappy country he lived in, and the fatal Viennese inheritance of melancholy and lack of virility.

Since Grillparzer a good many verse dramas have been written in Austria, but there has been no dramatist of great

Friedrich  
Halm.

power in this field. The flow of Romanticism carried one man high: Friedrich Halm, with his true name Baron Münch-Bellinghausen (1806-1871), whose pseudo-Spanish plays were once popular. But they are of a sickly sweetness, not to say bathos. The one play that has remained on the stage to this day is "Der Fechter von Ravenna" ("The Gladiator of Ravenna").

Of late a Viennese Neo-Romanticist has made a name for himself as a dramatist: it is Hugo von Hofmannsthal (born 1874), the lyrical symbolist, whose plays have either the Orient or the Italy of the Renaissance for their scene, glowing in voluptuous descriptions, intoxicating the hearer with their beautiful suggestive diction, but neither dramatic nor always lucid. In his "Electra" (music by Richard Strauss) he

Hugo von  
Hofmannsthal.

shows his close relation to Oscar Wilde, in "Das Gerettete Venedig" he has used the same story as Otway in his play "Venice Preserved." He has found a good many imitators; one pupil of promise is Beer-Hofmann, whose "Count of Charolois" made quite a stir, in spite of its lack of dramatic spirit.

And Arthur Schnitzler, of whom we shall have to speak in another connection, has written a brilliant Renaissance tragedy, far more dramatic than any of Hofmannsthal's—"Der Schleier der Beatrice" ("The Veil of Beatrice").

**Arthur  
Schnitzler.**

The era of Metternich, which was the death of so much that was great in poetry and art, and which made even Grillparzer's the half-hearted plays they are, nevertheless could not quite suppress Viennese jollity and love of fun; and these found an outlet in the harmlessly hilarious popular theatres.

**Popular  
Drama.**

The finest flower growing in this walled-in garden was Ferdinand Raimund (1790-1836), the author of romantic-realistic plays unique to this day, and as popular now as they were almost a hundred years ago, with the masses as well as with the intellectual circles. His life was short and sad. As a boy he was apprenticed to a pastry-cook; he ran off, became an actor, and was soon famous in comic parts. Like many comedians, his was a sentimental, melancholy character; he was irresponsible, like a child, lovable and good-natured, but prone to fits of what almost amounted to mania of persecution. His married life was unhappy, and as a Catholic he could not marry again, even after he had been divorced. He shot himself in his beloved country-place, in the mountains near Vienna. His literary career comprises only ten years.

**Ferdinand  
Raimund.**

The charm of Raimund's comedies lies in the natural and poetic interlacement of fairy-tale and realistic comedy. His fairies and sprites generally represent human frailties and

virtues, and all have a tenderly humorous, realistic touch—they even speak the Vienna dialect. Among Raimund's immortal creations are the domestics Florian in "The Fairy King's Diamond" and, above all, Valentin in the "Spendthrift," who continually makes you laugh through tears, a gift that Raimund often exercises. Besides the last-named play the most pathetic, tenderly humorous, sweetly-fanciful and at the same time profoundly human is "The Mountain King and the Misanthrope," the story of a misanthrope bearing strong resemblance to the author, who is cured by having a mirror held before him, in which he sees his own shape represented by a benevolent sprite, the "Mountain King." There are some scenes (for instance, one in the squalid hut of a poor wood-cutter) which hold their own beside Hauptmann's realistic pictures, and some farcical ones which make you scream with laughter.

Raimund's sorrow was that he was not learned enough ever to be a "real poet"—little he guessed that his naïve genius would charm generations of old folk and young, intellectual and simple-minded, long after the works of poets appreciated in his time were forgotten.

In due distance from Raimund we must name his brother actor, John Nestroy (1802-1882), a kindred genius in so far as outwardly their methods were much the same ; but he was a thorn in the flesh to the gentle, refined Raimund because of his bitterly sarcastic, sometimes equivocal wit. His farces lack the sweet fancy of Raimund's even where supernatural beings play a part. But they are undoubtedly clever and robust, their political innuendos, though no longer topical, are still apposite and striking, and if the jokes have a bitter flavour, they are all the more to the point. His best plays are : "Zu ebener Erde und im ersten Stock" ("Pedlar and Merchant-Prince") where a poor and a rich family in the same house are contrasted effectively, and "Lumpaci-Vagabundus," the adventures of three happy-go-lucky journeymen.

**Johann  
Nestroy.**

The third great comedy-writer of the time was Edward von Bauerfeld (1802-1890), who did for the upper classes

what Raimund and Nestroy did for the people.  
**Edward von Bauerfeld.** His refined, brilliant comedies of high life are good in their sparkling, natural dialogue,

in characterisation and in composition—he had studied the French writers to a purpose, though he always remained characteristically Viennese. “Bürgerlich und Romantisch” (“Prose and Romance”), and “Grossjährig” (“Of Age”), a persiflage on the political situation, which many consider his masterpieces, are played with great success to this day.

A new impulse was given to dramatic literature in the seventies by the village tragedies and comedies of Ludwig Anzengruber (1839-1889). He is comparatively little known outside his country, for

**Ludwig Anzengruber.**

he has deliberately caged himself by writing mostly in the Austrian dialect. But it is well worth while for readers of German to overcome this difficulty, for they will be amply rewarded by making the acquaintance of a true dramatist, an inspired poet, a man of high ideals, and at the same time an inexhaustible humourist, both tender and sarcastic. His figures, be they peasants or townspeople, are living men and women; the dialogue is natural and witty; and the tendency of the plays—for there is not one without a purpose—never obtrudes itself. The pretty little songs, of which his plays are full, always grow out of the situation and give emphasis to it. There are a great many episodes round the central story, but never so many as to entangle the thread of the plot unduly. Altogether, Anzengruber, being an actor himself, had an excellent eye for what was effective, but he never pandered to the baser instincts of the public. Most of his plays are acted still, some of them even in the Imperial Theatre, from which, as a rule, the dialect is barred. The best known are “Der Pfarrer von Kirchfeld” (“The Village Priest”), which rails against clericalism, the play which made Anzengruber famous ;

“Der G’wissenswurm” (“The Prick of Conscience”), with a Tartuffe in peasant garb, one of the most striking figures in modern dramatic literature; “Das Vierte Gebot” (“The Fourth Commandment”), a story of the degeneration of a once prosperous Vienna family, which grips the hearer as very few grand tragedies do; “Die Kreuzelschreiber” (“The Cross Signers”), a pathetic comedy which tells of how the bigoted women of a Bavarian village effectually quench the liberal spirit of the men; and “Heimg’funden” (“Home Again”), the tragedy of a man who has risen from a peasant boy to a successful barrister, and is ruined by the devil of pride. Anzengruber has also written short stories and two remarkable novels, in the same vein as his plays.

He has found successors both in the field of the Viennese popular play, and the village tragedy. Among the former

Langmann, Hawel, and above all Karlweis,

**Schönherr.** have written good, if not very profound plays; among the latter there is a man of genius,

Schönherr. This young author has already twice had the most deserved success of the season, and it is to be hoped that he will go on in the same way. In his thrilling play “Erde” (“Earth”), he lays open the depth of peasant nature, picturing that hunger for the soil, for a bit of earth, which makes all other passions dwindle in the breast of the peasant. In the historical peasant drama “Glaube und Heimat” (“Faith and Home”), which has for its background the Protestant persecutions during the counter-reformation in the seventeenth century, the conflict is that between religious faith, and the love of home—an old story, but told in a new way.

Among the realists who write Society plays, one man towers above the rest—it is Arthur Schnitzler (born 1862). He has

**Society Plays.** studied medicine, coming from a family of doctors, and his experiences have made him

**Schnitzler.** somewhat cynical and frivolous. But in spite of a certain looseness as regards sexual relations, Schnitzler may be said to have preached more moral than



many a highly respectable writer—he does not get tired of breaking lance after lance for the outcasts of society, always taking the part of the woman. Apart from his terribly daring “Reigen,” a sequence of suggestive dialogues, and “Anatol,” a series of one-act plays not unknown in England, all Schnitzler’s work points a moral. In “Liebelei” (“Philandering”) he shows us the typical love affair of the man of the world, which to him is no more than a passing fancy, while it drives the girl to her death. In “Freiwild” he describes the typical fight against overwhelming odds of the actress who tries to keep her honour. His last play, “Professor Bernhardi,” which has become famous through being forbidden in Austria, while it is performed with great success in Germany, is the first without any erotic problem—in fact there is no woman in it at all, excepting an episodic and quite subordinate figure. It is a clever picture of the nasty side of Viennese politics and a certain section of society, though, as a drama, not equal to most of Schnitzler’s former plays.

An indefatigable fighter against reaction and clericalism was also Burckhardt, barrister, Civil Servant, and sometime director of the Vienna Imperial Theatre. His

**Burckhardt.** calling gave him plenty of opportunity for studying the seamy side of human nature, and though his social dramas have not by far the literary value of Schnitzler’s carefully polished gems, still they are precious as pictures of Austrian life. Of course, as is unavoidable in work of the kind, the picture sometimes degenerates into caricature, particularly when the subject is taken from the life of the upper ten thousand.

A brilliant and at the same time profound and poetic dramatist is Felix Salten, whose one-act plays were a great success in London some years ago.

**Felix Salten.** Salten is comparatively young, and great things are expected of him by his many admirers. Other popular writers of social plays are Bahr

and Auernheimer—characteristically enough all the three are feuilleton writers at the same time.

In poetry the nineteenth century has not yielded such rich harvest as in dramatic literature. There are dozens and dozens of minor poets, and in song several

**Poetry.** truly inspired ones. But there is only one who is truly great—one of the half-dozen divine lyrists the German tongue possesses—it is Nikolaus Lenau (1802-1850, with his true name Nikolaus Niembsch Edler von Strehlenau). As he was born in the melancholy Hungarian steppe, of a libertine father and a lunatic mother, no

**Nikolaus  
Lenau.**

wonder that there was a shadow over him always, and that his soul died long years before his body. His was a life of unrest, he vacillated continually from Vienna to Stuttgart, even going to America for a year, fleeing from himself, seeking he knew not what. A destroying love for the wife of a friend, the noble and beautiful Sofie Löwenthal, at last brought on a climax. Lenau was brought to an asylum in 1844.

The charm of Lenau's poetry lies in its darkly wistful atmosphere, instinct with a passionate love of nature in her grandest and saddest moods ("Reed Songs," "Forest Songs"). He has a note of his own, unlike that of any other poet—sweetly musical always, like the soft strain of a gipsy's violin or the wind among the reeds, and though his subjects are old variations of old themes, love and nature, his handling makes them new and fresh. It is characteristic that Lenau has attracted more composers than any other lyricist, excepting perhaps, Mörike, the Suabian poet.

His epic poetry is quite as inspired and passionate as his lyrics, but the true epic spirit is lacking. Both "Savonarola" and "Die Albigenser" are rather a series of ballads and lyrics, than stories in verse.

Lenau's faithful friend, Anastasius Grün (1806-1876, with his true name Count Auersperg) lifted the party poetry of the time to purer heights by his impassioned liberal poems

"Spaziergänge eines Wiener Poeten" ("Rambles of a Vienna Poet"). He has also written powerful and impressive ballads, such as the cycle "Der letzte Ritter" ("The Last Knight"), and translated Slovenian folk-songs, being the first to draw the treasures of Slav popular poetry to light.

Anastasijs  
Grün.

Baron Zedlitz (1790-1862) was another spirited writer of ballads, and so were the three spontaneous and patriotic, if rather humdrum poets Seidl, Beck and Vogl. The only epics of note written in that time are "Ahasver in Rome" and "The King of Sion," by Hamerling (1830-1889), clever and brilliant historical paintings, full of pulsing life and glowing colour, written in a carefully polished and noble language, but void of soul. He has found a successor in Maria Delle Grazie, whose daring epic "Robespierre" raised a storm at the time of its publication.

Of lyrists, we must mention Maurice Hartmann, an impassioned liberal; the vivid poetess, Betty Paoli; the earnest and noble-minded Feuchtersleben (best known by his excellent essays on philosophic subjects), some of whose poems have become so popular that their author was forgotten; Adolf Pichler, the vigorous Tyrolese; and standing a few steps higher than all these, Gilm (1813-1864), a lyrist of deep feeling, melodious and tender; some of his poems, such as "The Night," breathless with melancholy and passion, or the wistfully resigned "All Souls' Day," must be placed among the pearls of the language.

The poetry of to-day is mostly under the spell of the symbolists—beautiful language, musical verse, brilliant imagery, quaint conceits, refinement, elaboration—but little feeling or thought, and less lucidity.

Modern  
Poetry.

The leaders of the movement in Austria are Hofmannsthal, who is better known abroad as a dramatist, and Rainer Maria Rilke. Lesser stars in the group are Wildgans, Zweig, Camill

Hoffmann, and many others. Hugo Salus cannot be quite counted one of them, for in spite of a certain hyper-refinement he often finds accents of genuinely-felt emotion, and some of his poems even remind one of folk-songs in their suggestive simplicity.

A new talent of remarkable originality is the workman Alfons Petzold, whose socialistic poems have lately made a stir in Vienna.

\* \* \* \*

Fiction in the nineteenth century has some remarkable representatives in Austria.

**Fiction.** In the first half of the century we have Adalbert Stifter (1805-1868), who, in his "Studies" and other stories, gives faithful pictures of nature and humanity. His love of detail, his earnestness and fervour, and his moral sense are all qualities which to-day are thrown in his teeth as faults, and he is little read except by young people, which is a great pity, as his eye for the picturesque in landscape and in human nature, his skill in telling a story, his clever and tenderly humorous characterisation and the poetry of his descriptions are such as should appeal to maturer minds.

**Adalbert Stifter.**

One of the best beloved novelists of the last fifty years is Marie, Baronin Ebner-Eschenbach (born 1830). Her wonderfully human descriptions of the life of peasant and aristocrat in Moravia, as well as the faithful and brilliant pictures of Vienna society, all seen with the eye of a tolerant, great-hearted, genial, and profoundly thinking woman, have gained her a place among the first writers of the age. She has written several fine novels and many short stories, those of child and animal life being among the most touching of their kind. Her aphorisms show an undaunted liberal spirit and quaint humour, together with a gift of terse, concise expression very rare in one of her sex.

**Baronin  
Ebner.**

Beside these greater ones we must mention Ferdinand Kürnberger, a thoughtful novelist with a fine gift of characterisation; Ferdinand von Saar, who is by **Other Novelists.** some considered Baronin Ebner's equal as a writer of short stories; and Baronin Suttner, the well-known advocate for the world's peace, who began her agitation with the novel *Die Waffen nieder!* (*Lower Your Arms!*).

A different group of writers are the realist describers of peasant life. Just as in the drama, so in fiction the peasant story and peasant novel flourished in the seventies and is again bringing forth blossoms to-day.

**The Village Novel.**

We have already spoken of Anzengruber. His friend Peter Rosegger (born 1843) is still the foremost representative of the village novel. He describes his **Rosegger.** beloved Styria and her people in all moods and tempers, always faithfully, but with a love that forgives the faults of the rugged peasants and woodcutters, without idealising them, pathetic and humorous by turns. He is to-day one of the most popular Austrian writers. His best works are *Jakob der Letzte* (*Jacob the Last*), which tells of the despair of a peasant doomed to lose his farm, his bit of earth; *Der Gottsucher* (*The Godseeker*), a profound and tragic story; and *Der Waldschulmeister* which describes the blessings wrought by a contented little village teacher.

Schönherr, the gifted dramatist, has also written stories. And close to him stands a woman, Enrica von Handel-Mazzetti, the author of the most thrilling and **Handel-Mazzetti.** virile historical novel in the German language of to-day. The background of the story is the bitter fight between Catholics and Protestants during the counter-reformation. Fräulein Handel has a grip and power of characterisation, a knowledge of her subject, and a gift of story-telling unique amongst living writers in Austria.

A poetic novelist, though a little too ornate and elaborate, is Rudolf Hans Bartsch, a Styrian like Rosegger. He has written several Styrian novels, but his best

**Bartsch.** book is a collection of historical tales, *The Dying Rococo*.

The social novel of the day has for its chief representatives the authors we have already spoken of as dramatists—

**Social  
Novels.** Burckhard, Schnitzler, Salten. As a poetic and thoughtful writer we must also name J. J. David.

The chief Austrian humorists, both Viennese to the core, are Vinzenz Chiavacci and—*facile princeps*—

**Humorists.** Eduard Pötzl, the famous feuilletonist of the *Neues Wiener Tagblatt*.

## CHAPTER VII

### THE PRESS

HERE is a curious fact for politicians and journalists : Vienna, which even at the height of the Habsburg ascendancy, never was the centre of Germany, and which has now for over a hundred years been considered altogether outside it, produces several dailies in German which are looked upon in Germany and abroad on a par with, if not superior to, the very best daily papers in Berlin, Munich, Frankfort and Cologne. A writer who has been a contributor to the *Neue Freie Presse*, or the *Neues Wiener Tagblatt*, or *Die Zeit* (the leading dailies of Vienna), is always sure of a welcome reception by the Berlin editors ; in point of fact a good many leader writers and influential critics in Berlin hail from Vienna, where they got their training and made their reputations.

The *Neue Freie Presse*, which was started some forty years ago, had for a good many years the greatest circulation of any

German paper, and this marvellous success was owing solely and exclusively to its literary finish. The then editors of the

*Neue Freie Presse*, of whom only one, Herr Moriz Benedikt, has survived, took great pains and jibbed at no expense to get the very best writers on the staff of their paper ; they had a wonderful scent for talent and promise and thus it became an established fact among writers and readers that for literary excellence the *Neue Freie Presse* was first and unequalled among the German daily papers, both in Austria and Germany.

The most attractive feature of the *Neue Freie Presse* was its feuilleton, a genus of writing which in everything but its name has nothing whatever to do with what

The Feuilleton. English and French readers are used to associate with the word feuilleton. In French and English papers a feuilleton means a serial, a novel in

instalments: the *Feuilleton* of the *Neue Freie Presse*, which is now being imitated by all the German papers, was a different thing altogether. The subject of a *feuilleton* might be anything and everything, from a commentary on some topic of the day to the inspiration of a philosopher. The material was nothing, the handling everything. There was one thing required: the piece of writing "below the stroke," that is, under the leader, had to be a work of art, complete in itself, highly finished in style, suggestive, poignant, forcible.

To give an English reader an idea of what the Vienna *feuilleton* is like, one has to go back to the days of Addison and Steele; perhaps Lamb and Hazlitt would do as well. In our own days William Archer and H. W. Walkeley have proved that ease and grace are not incompatible with critical acumen and thoroughness. For a long time the difficult art of *feuilleton*-writing seemed to be a secret of the *Neue Freie Presse*. Ludwig Speidel and Hugo Wittmann were eagerly imitated by the young generation. Since then it has become the tradition of every Vienna paper to have at least one eminent *feuilleton* writer on its staff. To the general reader, unless he happen to be acquainted with the *personnel* of his favourite paper, the *feuilleton* writer is the only man who is known to him by name, and consequently is most intimately associated with the paper itself. Thus to subscribers of the *Neue Freie Presse* Ludwig Speidel, Hugo Wittmann, and later on, Theodor Herzl, were much better known to the public than the editors-in-chief, Wilhelm Bacher and Moriz Benedikt; to readers of the *Neues Wiener Tagblatt* Eduard Pötzl is a more familiar name than Wilhelm Singer, notwithstanding the fact that Herr Singer enjoys a wide reputation as a first-rate authority on French affairs, as a friend and confidant of many a French statesman and as the founder and president of the International Press Association. And *Die Zeit* was in its upward struggle greatly helped by the *feuilletons* of that brilliant writer Felix Salten.



As to the politics of the Vienna papers, we have all shades and varieties from the narrowest nationalism and bigoted denominationalism up to a broad-minded cosmopolitan outlook on life.

The Clerical Party, which represents the German population of the Alpine countries, has for its mouthpiece *Die Reichspost*, which is said to be often inspired by the Heir Presumptive, Archduke Franz Ferdinand. This report is eagerly spread by the Clericals and as eagerly contradicted by the Liberals. *Die Reichspost* is the exponent of Anti-Semitism.

In this mission it is supported by another widely-read paper, the *Deutsches Volksblatt*, the editor of which started as a sort of modern St. George going to kill the dragon of political and financial corruption; in due course he amassed a vast fortune and was more than once dragged before the law courts to defend himself against the reproach of bribery and corruption.

The extreme German nationalism is voiced by the *Ostdeutsche Rundschau*, a paper which has a very limited circulation.

The Social Democratic Party is represented by the *Arbeiterzeitung*, which has some very able editors and is coming rapidly to the fore. It is read by a great many people outside the social Democratic Party on account of its uncompromising attitude in matters connected with the upper circles.

Most of the Vienna dailies are conducted on non-party lines and are strictly liberal in their views. The *Neue Freie Presse* and *Die Zeit* are read by intellectuals of all parties. The *Neues Wiener Tagblatt* and the *Neues Wiener Journal* have a vast following among the lower middle class. The *Illustriertes Extrablatt* caters for the old stock of those natives to whom

Vienna is everything and the world outside of very little account.

Besides these independent papers there is the official gazette, *Wiener Zeitung*, and several dailies which are subsidised by the Government. Of these the *Official and Semi-official Papers.* *Fremdenblatt* is traditionally the organ of the Foreign Office, and up to a short time ago was also that of the War Office. The Emperor is believed to be a regular reader of the *Fremdenblatt*. Owing to this fact (or fiction) the paper has a wide circulation among officers and the Vienna aristocracy. During the war scare of the winter 1912-13 a military paper, named *Militärische Rundschau* has been founded and strongly subsidised by the War Office. It was greatly deplored that the tone of this semi-official paper during the crisis was everything but correct.

It will surprise English readers to hear that there are scarcely any weekly papers in Vienna. There have been a good many abortive attempts at supplying this want.

*Weeklies.* *Die Zeit* seemed in a fair way to hold its own, but in the end it was merged in the daily paper of that name. And *Die Wage*, which was started under favourable circumstances, barely manages to keep above water.

It is not as if the Viennese were indifferent to argumentative writing and literary discussions. Rather the reverse. But what interest there is in political argument and literary criticism is amply satisfied by the feuilletons and weekly supplements of the leading daily papers.

The comic weekly, *Die Muskete*, which was started a few years ago, has, by its independent attitude towards parties and politicians gained an influential position and has become very popular in military circles by its broad-minded patriotism and fearless exposition of bogus and sham. It has the very best Viennese cartoonists on its staff.

The only magazine of political and literary importance is the bi-monthly review, *Oesterreichische Rundschau*. Dr.

Glossy, the editor-in-chief, has spared no pains to keep it at a high mark of literary excellence and thorough information.

In a country of so many nations and languages as Austria there is, of course, plenty of room for provincial papers. We

have three leading dailies in Polish, two in Czech, one in Ruthenian, and so on, and so on.

The Provincial Press. But it may be safely asserted that the provincial press of the several Slavonic races is slightly given to parochialism and self-centred exaggeration of their national affairs. This foible is not shared by the chief Italian paper in Trieste, the *Piccolo della Matina* and *Piccolo della Sera*.

It should be mentioned in passing that Prague, the capital of Bohemia, which is claimed by the Czechs as a stronghold of Slavonic aspirations, boasts of two excellent German papers, the *Prager Tagblatt* and the *Bohemia*.

The Vienna journalists are a powerful body of men and have never been wanting in a very commendable *esprit de corps*. To become a member of their association, the "Concordia," is a mark of distinction, and their yearly crush, the "Concordia-ball" is attended by diplomatists, home and foreign, politicians, financiers, captains of industry, painters, theatrical stars—in fact, *tout* Vienna.

## CHAPTER VIII

### ARCHITECTURE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

THE first fifty years of the nineteenth century were lost ones as regards architecture. The Emperor Franz, with his very necessary principle of saving, had cut down all expenses relating to building. When now and again something had to be done, such as a toll-house, a barrack, a Government-house, no artists were employed, but the buildings rose at command from the authorities, and there was far more ink and red tape used than pencil and brush.

The result of this was a sorry one, and the buildings erected under the *régime* of Sprenger, the then almighty Master of the Imperial Building Office (K. K. Hofbauamt) are no honour to Vienna.

At the time it would have seemed incredible that the healthy breeze which was to sweep over Europe was to rise just here, that Vienna should boast the greatest architects of the century, and that the "Viennese Style" should become exemplary all over Europe.

In a great measure this is owing to the intelligent, generous and great-minded initiative of the Emperor Francis Joseph, who planned the rejuvenation of Vienna and found the right men to carry it through.

Vienna Rebuilt at the Initiative of Francis Joseph I. In 1857 the town walls with the fortifications encircling Vienna proper were laid low, the old ramshackle houses leaning against them vanished with them, and a broad street with double avenues, flanked by the most beautiful and imposing buildings and palaces,

rose in their stead, thus making the suburbs and Vienna one. The effect of this novelty was such that a great many European cities, Paris and the large German towns especially, imitated it. This grandiose work was not done in a day, the first plans were altered again and again, and it took almost thirty years to finish it.

Before we speak of the five men who have made Vienna architecture what it is, we must remember two unhappy

**Van der Nüll** artists who were born for great things also,  
**and** but just a few years too soon. They are  
**Siccardsburg.**

Van der Nüll and Siccardsburg, the builders of the Imperial Opera House. These two inseparables died in 1868, the year before their great work was completed, Van der Nüll, by his own hand, Siccardsburg some weeks later of heart failure, brought about by disappointment and grief. The Opera House is to-day considered a masterpiece, but at the time it was built not one good word was said about it. The difficulties were great—the site for it being the old moat, which was cleverly used for all kinds of cellars, and numbers of private apartments and offices having to be accommodated in the building. Apart from all this, incessant nagging, suggestions, and even commands from all kinds of authorities made the work a martyrdom. It cannot be appreciated enough that, in spite of all this, the house was made what it is. The style is early French Empire, with a beautiful, most effective loggia. Technically it is superb, especially as regards light, ventilation and stage construction.

The five creators of New Vienna are the three great friends, Hansen, Schmidt, Ferstel, together with Semper and Hasenauer.

Theophil, Baron von Hansen (1813-1891), was by birth a Dane, by inclination a Grecian. He learned to love the classic architecture in Athens, and though his first

**Theophil**  
**von Hansen.**

work in Vienna was still romantic, he soon found himself and remained true to Hellenic architecture through life.



"Kilophot," G.m.b.h., Vienna.

PARLIAMENT HOUSE WITH TOWER OF RATHAUS

Photo by

TO VIND  
ARTICLES

## Architecture in the Nineteenth Century 83

His great work is the House of Parliament, a pure Corinthian temple, or rather three of them, combined by two imposing window tracts, so that the front

**The House of Parliament.**

is 500 feet long. The two great halls to right and left behind the pillared temples are decorated by caryatid balconies, their high attica is full of fine statuary seen from afar. The interior is rich with marble and painted stucco, its glory the central temple hall (128 to 72 feet) with twenty-four colossal red marble pillars, the walls being black and white marble.

Hansen was fond of polychromy, and where he could not make use of it on the outside, he lavished it on the interior. Other public buildings by Hansen are the Academy of the Fine Arts, with a fine pillar-hall, the Bourse, and the *Musikvereinssäle*, Vienna's largest concert-hall, with a profusion of gold inside.

Apart from these, Hansen is of the last importance as builder of private palaces. The *Ringstrasse*, with its unheard-of broadness (almost 200 feet) required an immense type of house, and he, together with Ferstel, was the man to create it.

Baron Friedrich von Schmidt (1825-1871), a Suavian by birth, was Hansen's antipode—a Gothic enthusiast of the last order. He was an imposing personality, an artisan originally, and proud of the fact, but in spite of many homely traits, the very man to deal with court officials, and other authorities, getting his own way always, and always without giving offence. He was a society man, one of the best after-dinner speakers of his time, and yet an artist through and through. To his strong personality we owe a sturdy school of architects, while the other great builders left scarcely any pupils behind them.

**Friedrich von Schmidt.**

He became attached to the Gothic style in Cologne, where, as a lad, he worked at restoring the dome, and then in Milan. When first he came to Vienna, in 1859, his work was still a bit hard and angular, but he soon became more Viennese,



that is, softer and more graceful. Before he began his great work, the Town Hall (*Rathaus*), he had built the monastery-like *Akademisches Gymnasium*, Vienna's most famous grammar school, and five suburban churches, each of a distinct character, original and striking. The finest of these is the church in *Fünfhaus*, with a noble cupola and graceful lantern.

Besides all this, he worked incessantly at the regeneration of St. Stephen's (*Stefansdom*), that finest of German cathedrals, which was begun in the thirteenth century

St. Stephen's. and finished in the fifteenth. This remarkable edifice boasts the greatest steeple in Europe, 450 feet high. It is a pity that the magnificent building cannot fully assert itself, as it is too closely surrounded by secular structures to allow a full view from anywhere. Schmidt rebuilt the top of the steeple, restored many bits outside and in, which had been spoiled by irreverent hands, and altogether sparingly but firmly strengthened the whole.

The Town Hall is an eclectic building, classical in the horizontal lines, gothic in the vertical ones. In its construction it reminds one of the Brussels Town Hall with the belfry rising almost free in front.

The Town Hall. There are open arcades on the ground-floor; the upper floors, with their immense Gothic windows, are richly decorated, and the whole with its magnificent staircase makes a grand impression. The square commanded by this building is surely one of the finest in the world, with the classic House of Parliament and the University to left and right of it, and the *Hofburgtheater* opposite.

A little sister of the Town Hall is the *Sühnhaus* (House of Atonement). This remarkable building was erected on the Emperor's initiative on the site where the Ring Theatre was burnt and hundreds perished, and meant to be an act of atonement for that terrible catastrophe. It is really a business house with a chapel for its centre.

Schmidt has also build many churches in the provinces

and abroad, and altogether was one of our strongest and most fertile architects.

A third great builder was Baron Heinrich von Ferstel (1828-1883), a child of the Vienna soil, cheery and graceful, full of imagination and yet ever harmonious, versatile and clever in technicalities. It is characteristic of the man that he was a good painter and musician, a passionate collector of antiquities, and a fluent writer. He has always been a favourite of the public, and his greatest work, the Votive Cathedral (*Votivkirche*), is almost as well beloved of the Viennese as St. Stephen's.

Heinrich  
von Ferstel.

The *Votivkirche* is simple in its construction, like the Cathedral of Cologne, but not so heavy and massive; on the contrary, in spite of its rich decoration, the effect is so graceful as to remind one of lace, which has its reason partly in the beautiful light grey material used, and partly in the fact that the two steeples are quite open-worked. The site adds to its effect, for so far from being smothered like St. Stephen's, the church stands in a huge square, the fine buildings flanking it (like the University) well set back. English readers will be interested in the fact that Sir Tatton Sykes, when travelling all over Europe to find a model for the parish church he wished to build, chose the *Votivkirche*.

The Votive  
Cathedral.

When Ferstel won the prize for this church he was only twenty-seven years old. Later he was claimed by the Renaissance, and his other great buildings were all in the classic style. Of these the finest are the Austrian Museum, which combines the Vienna Arts and Crafts School with an Exhibition Hall. It is rich in polychrome outside, but its chief beauty lies in the interior, particularly the arcade court with its magnificent staircase. This was a speciality of Ferstel's, and the University, his finest secular building, has several of these imposing staircases and an inner court with arcades rivalling Michael Angelo's court in the Palazzo

Farnese. Ferstel studied in Italy, in France, and in England, before he began this work, but his plans as regards the inner decoration were not carried out in spite of his valiant battles with red tape and stinginess. This trouble actually helped to bring him to his grave.

Ferstel was also, next to his friend Hansen, the most important builder of private houses, and with him gave the Ringstrasse its characteristic aspect. Besides, Vienna owes to him the "Cottage Quarter," a suburb in the north-west of Vienna, with one-family houses and gardens in the English way, in contrast to the horrid tenement-house principle prevalent in Vienna. It is a pity he could not do more in this direction, in spite of his ardent propaganda in word and deed.

On a somewhat lower step of the ladder than these three great men stands Baron Karl von Hasenauer (1833-1895), a pupil of Van der Nüll, and a Vienna man also. **Karl von Hasenauer.** His was no pure austere genius like that of his three great colleagues, but his dazzling, effective style suited the Viennese who were schooled by Makart to love voluptuous beauty, and he was certainly original in his magnificent decorative style, Viennese through and through, and a clever manager.

His faults were counterbalanced by Friedrich Semper, whom we must count as the fifth great creator of New Vienna, though he only spent some years here. **Friedrich Semper.** Semper is as well known in England as here—he lived four years in London, and to him England is partly indebted for the construction of the Kensington Museum, and for the organisation of the Arts and Crafts Movement. In 1870 Semper was summoned to Vienna to aid Hasenauer, in fact to supervise his work, and the Imperial Museums, the Emperor's Palace, and the Imperial Court Theatre were built by the two of them.

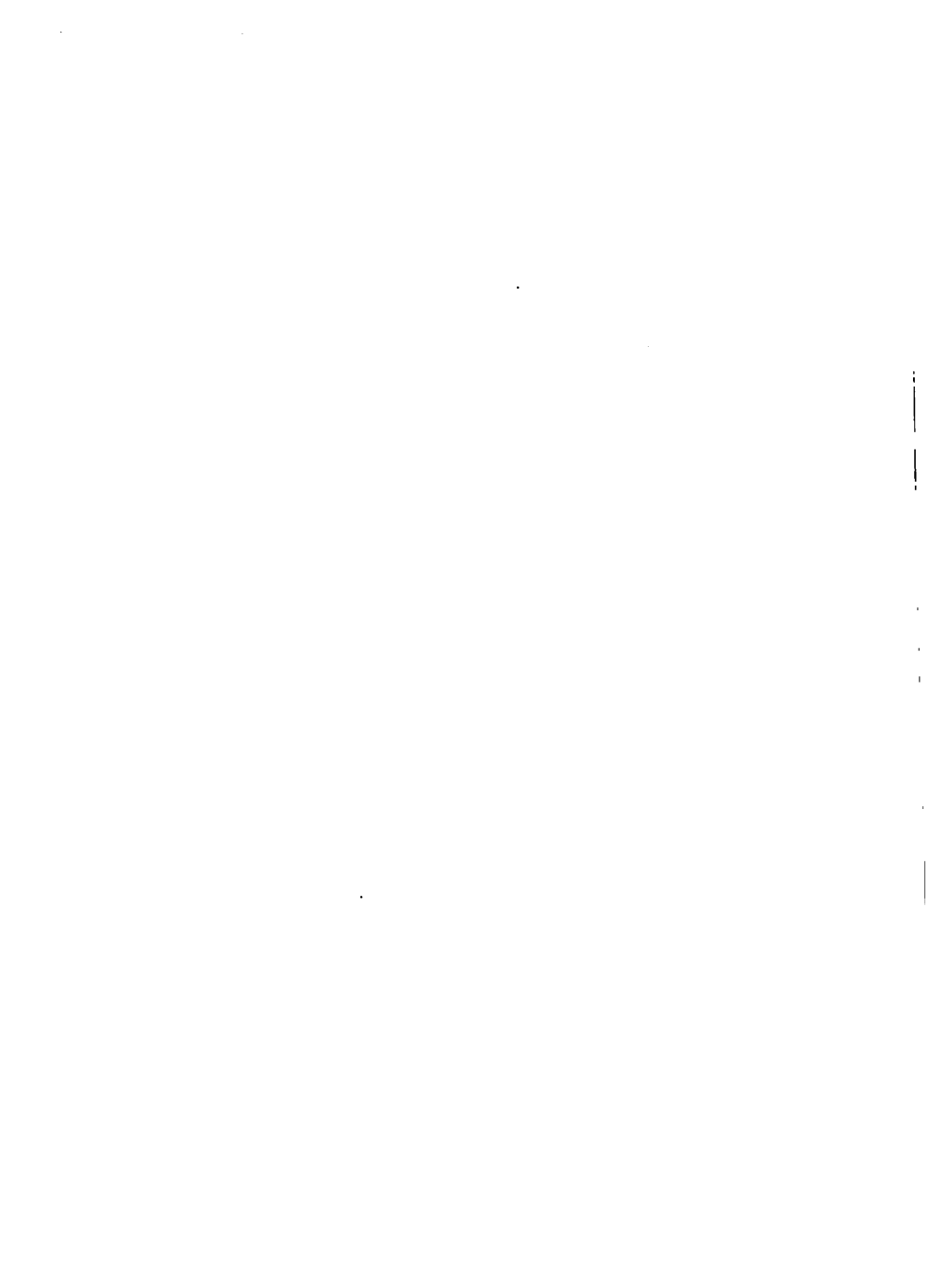
The Imperial Museums (of the Fine Arts and of Natural History) are two identical buildings in the style of the Italian



*Photo by*

**DONNERBRUNNEN**

*"Kilophos," G.m.b.h., Vienna.*



Renaissance, with cupolas 200 feet high, standing opposite each other on a large square. The gorgeous entrance halls with their grand staircases are the most colossal and magnificent ones of the world. Hasenauer has used all kinds of many-coloured marble, with a very network of gold ornaments, and the decorations are pictures by Makart, Munkacsy, Klimt, and Matsch—the whole an orgy of colour.

The Imperial Court Theatre is characteristic of Semper in its construction—a half circle with two elongated wings—and of Hasenauer in the decoration, which in its plastic part was undertaken by artists such as Tilgner, Weyr, Kundmann, while there is a profusion of pictures by Hynais, Klimt, Matsch, Charlemont, Robert Russ. The staircases are again magnificent, and the stage is technically above reproach. But the house is too large, and the acoustics are not what they ought to be, though immense sums have been spent in alterations, and even rebuilding.

The new Palace of the Emperor (in which he does not live, feeling more comfortable in his well-known suites in the old wing) bears more or less the same stamp as these buildings, being a massive and imposing Renaissance structure.

Besides these eminent artists there were and are a great many other architects of high standing. As theatre-builders the two inseparables, Helmer and Fellner,

**Other Architects of the Old School.** are famous all over the world. Fleischer was a specialist in synagogues and built several fine residences besides. To König and Deininger, Vienna also owes many private houses and palaces, those of the latter in a rather too eclectic style. In Prague Zitek has built many fine classic edifices. In Galicia Zachariewitcz is probably the most important architect.

In architecture as well as in the fine arts the last decade of the century has brought a revolution, and the head of this secession in building was Otto Wagner (born 1841). He scorns all historical detail, working in lineary modern forms, straight and angular,

without pillars, without the popular round loggias, and for decoration using a good deal of metal, gold in particular, and coloured Dutch tiles. In Vienna his chief works are the station buildings of the Underground Railway, the huge Post Office Savings Bank, the Church of the Lunatic Asylum in Steinhof, and a great many tenement houses. Wagner has explained his principles in the widely-read book, *Modern Architecture*. He has a good many ardent fellow-combatants and pupils, as well as enemies who use his ideas, so that most of the buildings in Vienna which bear his stamp are not really his at all.

Of these modern architects we must mention Olbrich, the builder of the "Secession," Josef Hoffmann, Leopold Bauer, Max Fabiani, who has constructed boxes of

Other Modern  
Architects.

business houses, looking exactly like blocks of marble mounted in metal, and Friedrich Ohmann, to whom Vienna owes the charming terraces along the river Wien, and the architectural arrangement of several fine monuments. The most radical of all is Adolf Loos, whose business house on the Michaelerplatz has roused a storm of indignation in Vienna, and with good reason too, we must add. We cannot bring ourselves to admire a bare white block with windows looking like sightless eyes, and that in a fine old bit of the city, with beautiful Empire palaces all around, not to speak of the magnificent cupola of the Emperor's Palace which stands just opposite. Structures of that kind are glaring offences, nothing less; and it is to be hoped that the movement which aspires to put such incongruities in the place of all the dignified old-world houses still plentiful in Vienna, will be checked in time.



Photo by

"Kilophot," G.m.b.h., Vienna.

PIRANO (DALMATIA)



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## CHAPTER IX

### FINE ART IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

#### 1. THE CLASSICISM OF THE FIRST QUARTER

THIS was not a brilliant period in Austria. There was little originality, and even the imitative art does not get beyond mediocrity—with the exception of the miniature portrait, and porcelain plastics, where excellence was attained.

Historical painting was the *clou* of the time, and Friedrich Heinrich Füger (1751-1818) the absolute lord of art. But

**Historical  
Painting.**

good as he was in miniature painting, his historical pieces lack life of any kind. They are beautifully composed, light and colour

**Füger.**

are well distributed, the nude as well as the draperies carefully studied, but the effect is one of deadly correctness, no more.

His pupils were worse, and we may pass them over, with the exception of Caucic and Russ, two men who fought effectually against the cloying sweetness of the prevailing taste.

One painter only in that period found his way to a sort of realism: Johann Peter Krafft, whose soldiers and citizens are real live men, not costumes and attitudes.

In portrait painting, however, good work was done, especially in miniatures. English influence is remarkable here,

**Portrait  
Painting.**

and though the first good portraitists of the period, Lampi, father and son, still use the "sweetener" as their chief brush, and are

but lukewarm in colour, Füger, and even more so his pupil Daffinger (1790-1849), who is influenced by Lawrence in his

**Daffinger.**

brilliant colouring, painted the most charming miniature portraits, delicate, refined, perfect in characterisation. The best known of Daffinger's many famous pictures is, perhaps, the miniature of the present

Emperor as a baby, the prettiest baby imaginable, with fair curls and laughing blue eyes.

We may here mention the Polish pupil of Lampi's, Peszka, who was one of the first Polish painters and collectors.

In landscape painting Johann Christian Brand was the first to leave the well-trodden paths of the ideal classical landscape, and to return to the healthy, natural

**Landscape.  
Painting.**

picturing of his beautiful native scenery. He had plenty of able pupils. Other famous landscape painters of the time were Rebell and Koch, the latter painting only Italian landscapes.

Of etchers, etc., there were legion then, mostly clever, but not great. The demand for etchings and cuts was immense, all the books and reviews were illustrated with them, Christmas and other congratulation cards as well, and the art dealers' business developed rapidly.

In sculpture one man only achieved real greatness—Franz Zauner (1746-1822). At the time Canova loomed gigantic, and nobody could compete with him at first.

**Sculpture.**

(It may be mentioned here that two beautiful works by the Roman are to be seen in Vienna: the tomb of the Archduchess Marie Christine in St. Augustine's Church and the Theseus Group in the Imperial Museum of Art.) Zauner

**Zauner.**

worked in wood when a baby, in stone as a boy, and had done remarkable things before he was twenty. His beginnings are *rococo*, but his great works, the beautiful statue of Joseph II above all, are truly classic. Not in the cut and dried way of the contemporary painters, but with a pathetic and grand simplicity.

We may also mention Johann Martin Fischer. He is most famous for his "Muscleman," the model figure used in all the studios in Austria and many abroad to this day. But he has done good work in other ways, too, a great many Vienna fountain figures with effective draperies, for instance.

Joseph Daniel Böhm was a different man altogether, one of the few to see light in the darkness of the time. He only did

small things, woodcutting, reliefs, jewelry, medals, but everything with a fervour for his art that was almost religious. His influence on the younger generation was a remarkable factor in the next epoch.

This leads us to another man who worked at applied art, Grassi, the modeller of the Imperial Vienna Porcelain Shop. This Vienna Porcelain, called *Alt Wien*, with the trade-mark of the bee-hive, was truly artistic, in plastic work as well as in painting, the flower designs being quite a speciality. To-day it fetches fantastic prices, as the factory was closed in the sixties.

## 2. ROMANTICISM UP TO THE ERA OF FRANCIS JOSEPH I

The reaction against academic constraint and straight-lacedness had set in towards the end of the classicistic period, as we have seen, and the epoch before us was to complete the work of freeing art from its bonds. The Napoleonic Wars sent a wave of patriotism over Austria, and in its wake came Romanticism. Nothing was done in sculpture, it is true (lack of money being the chief reason), but painting attained a most respectable height, culminating in the works of one man of universal genius—Waldmüller. In historical and romantic painting there are also several artists whose work will live, some of whom, like Schwind, having come to their own only lately, so modern in the best sense are they.

In historical painting there is the trifolium Blaas, Engerth and Wurzinger, closely allied in their manner as well as in the heroic subjects they chose. Blaas was,

**Historical  
Painting.**

**Blaas.**

perhaps, the most striking individuality of the three. He painted frescoes in the famous Altlerchenfelder Church, and later forty-five gigantic pictures for the Arsenal in Vienna, mostly for the cupola. Their colouring is a little dull, but they are no doubt

**Engerth.**

grand work, very different from the attitudinous groups of a Füger. Engerth painted a good deal too, perhaps too much, for his later work

is rather superficially effective, though the characterisation and composition is always excellent. Wurzinger was the best teacher of the time. His fame as a painter rests chiefly on one monumental picture: "The Emperor Ferdinand II refusing to sign the articles of the religious peace which the Protestant Vienna citizens are demanding."

As a historical painter we must also mention the Czech nationalist Manes. Apart from his historical scenes he painted portraits, Czech national types, romantic legends, etc., and is popular to this day. His chief merit, however, is that of having raised a great many ancient Czech art treasures from forgotten depths.

The romantic religious painting of the period is also represented by three first-rate men, of whom two, however, soon left Vienna. Führich (d. 1876), the leader of the "Nazarene" group in Vienna, a strong individuality and honest, unshakable worker, was the only one to remain in Austria. His chief work here is the painting of the Altlerchenfelder Church (in which he was aided by several others), but his smaller pictures, and particularly his wood cuts, were appreciated and popular always, even in the time of the Makart rage, when good draughtsmanship was rather looked down upon than otherwise.

Steinle, who left Vienna for Frankfort before he had reached the summit of his power, was a specialist in Madonnas.

Schwindt (1804-1871), the third of this trifolium, was also lost to Austria when still a young man—like so many others of a later day, he went to Munich. He is

the romantic painter *par excellence*, but his romance is alive with personal reminiscences, and that is what makes his pictures so powerful, in spite of their elusive charm. Characteristically enough, he hated oils, and generally worked in water-colours. We have also countless pencil sketches from his hand, the most famous

being the "Schubertiaden," where Schubert, Schwindt, his inseparable, and the whole of that merry group of friends were portrayed in all possible and impossible situations. Very characteristic of that travel-loving, romantic time are also the travel sketches (*Reisebilder*). But his most beautiful work are the great cyclic scenes of folk-songs, legends and fairy tales, full of nature and yet most delicate and poetic in drawing and colouring, though a bit washy and faded for the modern colour-loving eye.

And now we come to that field where the best work of the time was done: social genre painting. The life

Genre Painting. that was portrayed in those pictures is very well described by Hevesi, the clever Vienna art critic. He says: "The art of

the time was rooted in everyday life, and thus limited by mental shackles and inartistic influences, but all the same the lovable traits of Viennese nature show to the best advantage. It is a cheerful, honest, well-meaning world that is reflected here, a world that lives and lets live, a life that is best taken from the sunny side, brightness everywhere, animation without agitation, pleasure in little things and cheerful renunciation of bigger ones that are hard to reach—the fine blue Danube, good wines to drink, good things to eat, good music to hear, and pretty women in plenty."

Such was, indeed, the Vienna world before 1848, and when, in addition to these rather uninspiring surroundings, we call to mind the shackles of their academic, classicistic past all the painters had to get rid of, it is remarkable what a host of excellent artists worked at the time. We can name only a few, but the walls of the Vienna galleries show hundreds of first-class pictures from the life of "Alt Wien."

There was Danhauser (1805-1845) the "Englishman" of the time, whose bright water-colours might be taken for British

Danhauser. work of to-day. He was first under the spell of the old Dutch genre painters; then David

Wilkie taught him much, but in the end he soared above

his master by aid of his temperament and fine sense of colour. His pictures of the well-to-do Vienna citizens in their comfortable and refined family life are unequalled.

Then there are the humoristic Peter Fendi, a delicate draughtsman, and the veracious if rather elaborate Eybl, with the animal painters Ranftl, Strassgschwandtner, and above all, the dramatic Gauer mann (1807-1862), whose

**Gauer mann.** pictures of the Austrian Alps and their cattle and game are always full of suggestion and sentiment. Landseer, a kindred spirit, admired him immensely.

And there is Ferdinand Georg Waldmüller (1793-1866), of whom we may just as well speak in this connection, though he reached the same excellence not only in **Waldmüller.** genre, but also in portrait-painting, in landscape and in still life.

He was an individuality if ever there was one, learning from all the great masters, but imitating none. He returned from Paris, from the Netherlands, from Italy, not as he had gone, but always himself. As quite a boy he had rebelled against the academical death-in-life, and he remained a revolutionist always. Here he was only properly valued after he was dead, while he was treated infamously in his lifetime, but England and America knew him at once for what he was worth, and Queen Victoria once bought his whole stock (thirty-one pictures) from him when he was on his way to Philadelphia to sell it there. "Return to nature" was his war cry, but he never became a soulless realist, his pictures always have a great thought of feeling in them. His colours are brilliant even from a modern standpoint—he was the first to paint in the sun, shocking his critics and dear colleagues beyond expression. His landscapes all have the atmosphere that other painters only did twenty and thirty years later. His portraits seem about to step from their frames, so life-like are they; and all so very, very Viennese. As a tree-painter he is first and foremost. And his genre pictures are

the last word in composition, in the distribution of light and shade, in characterisation, in humour and tenderness. Only in a certain softness is he excelled by Pettenkofen, past-master in this kind of painting.

Except for him, there was no genius in landscape painting at the time. His teacher, Franz Steinfeld, paved the way for a modern generation, but their work all falls into the time of Francis Joseph I.

**Landscape  
Painting.**

Beside him we may name Höger, a specialist in trees, who was surpassed only by Waldmüller.

The graphic arts do not show any growth during this time, though a great deal of cutting, etching, etc., was done. Alt, the father of the famous landscape painter, may just be mentioned.

In sculpture absolutely nothing of note was done.

### 3. THE ERA OF FRANCIS JOSEPH I

This half century, a golden age, indeed, has doubtless a face of its own, but to us the characteristic features are not plain yet. We stand too near to make them out clearly. If we must trace any schools or movements at all, we have to say that the romantic tide of the fifties went out, to make place to the Neo-renaissance ; this was followed by the colour enthusiasm of Makart and his time, and between that and the modern impressionism, with its various radical sections, there is no recognisable influence strong enough to form anything like a school.

Thus we shall have to take the good things as they come, chronologically, doing our best to group them wherever this is possible.

The painters mentioned in the last chapter : Führich and his school, the trifolium of historians, and Waldmüller, the lonely one, all wrought in this epoch still, in fact their best work was done in the sixties and seventies.

Other historians of the old school are Carl Swoboda, the



Czech, who painted the loggias in the Vienna opera, Eduard Swoboda, who decorated the Stock Exchange, Löffler-

**Historical  
Painting of the  
Old School.**

Radymno the Pole with great Polish pictures, Koller, who died in the gutter, but painted with wonderful swing, and many others. Of the older genre painters Friedrich Friedländer (1825-1899), the last of the Waldmüller school, is the best.

**Genre  
Painting of the  
Old School.**

He became a specialist in veterans after the war of 1866, and was very popular. Indeed, his carefully painted scenes show excellent qualities, of which the cleverly observed expression and gesture is not the least. His is also the merit of having founded the Vienna Artists' Society (*Künstlergenossenschaft*). Up to then the Vienna painters had suffered terribly under the tyranny of the dealers.

This calm and rather elderly painting world was rudely shaken by the allegorist, Karl Rahl (1812-1865), a man of

**Rahl.**

extraordinary vigour, one of those sensual natures brimming over with the love of life, of colour, and of form, and full of imagination, a man that the Renaissance of the sixteenth century might have brought forth. He died insane, deeply mourned by his pupils who had idolized him.

His titanic nature was at its best when working on a gigantic scale, and, indeed, his frescoes and ceiling-pieces are his most perfect work. He was the counterpart of his friend Hansen the architect, working hand in hand with him. His influence was very great, and he had countless pupils and disciples, of whom we may mention Bitterlich, painter and sculptor, Eisenmenger and Griepenkerl, who painted allegories quite in the style of the master, and carried out a great many of his plans and sketches.

If Rahl had been a great influence in Vienna, Makart (1840-1884) became a very pope. This genius in colour held the whole city spell-bound, it painted, it acted, it dressed, it talked, and, above all, it decorated its houses as the

great magician wished it to do. Rahl's school, with its heavy sombre colours, was outshone from the moment

**Makart.** Makart's first great painting, "Modern Amorettes," was seen. He painted historical scenes, allegories, portraits, landscapes, always on the largest scale, dazzling with light and colour, revelling in sensual beauty, in the most fantastic and voluptuous pageants.

It is a great pity that these wonderfully rich and glowing colours have partly darkened to sickly hues, owing to his often using cheap material—he could not always pay for the best! "Romeo and Juliet," for instance, has become almost indistinguishable, and in his "Triumph of Ariadne" (both in the Imperial Museum) some of the beautiful nude figures, not all, have faded into a sickly yellow.

He died young, without leaving any pupils; what he knew could not be taught.

Another great allegorist of the time was Hans Canon (1829-1885), an enthusiastic admirer and imitator of Rubens, but greater in his more original work.

**Canon.** As masters of colour we must also name the "Orientalists," who studied light and colour in Egypt, as Makart, too, had done. Leopold Karl Müller (1835-1892) was the first of them, Wilda and Mielich of to-day are following in his footsteps. Schön painted street scenes in the same flaringly vivid colours, using the same reflex effects, only his subjects were Italian. Among Müller's famous pictures is a "Camel Market in Cairo," Schön has a "Fish Market in Chioggia," etc.

The greatest of this group, perhaps the greatest Austrian genre painter, was August von Pettenkofen (1822-1889). He began with military pictures in the way of **Pettenkofen.** Meissonier, though even then he was richer in tone than the Frenchman, and broader in touch. Later his colours became simply glowing, without ever getting as extravagant as the impressionists'. An open cowhouse in the warm brown summer shade with a peasant

lad at the door, the glaring sun full on his white blouse—such were his subjects. His manner never remained the same, for like Alt he never grew too old to learn, and his last pictures are perfectly modern in touch, as the first had already been in colour. His brother Ferdinand imitated him most successfully, and his pictures are often taken for August's.

In Galicia this period brought forth two great historians of very different mettle—Grottker and the world-famous

Matejko. Arthur Grottker (1837-1867) has

**Grottker.** painted lovely historic romantic cycles of Polish history, visibly influenced by Schwind.

But his is a melancholy poetry, steeped in tears, while Jan Matejko (1838-1893) painted defiance and rebellion. His

composition was masterly at first, as in the

**Matejko.** famous "Polish Parliament at Warsaw, in 1773" (Imperial Museum in Vienna), but

his last pictures suffered from his growing short-sightedness and became too intricate and confused. His colour, however, remained what it had been from the beginning, so bright and fresh as to produce an almost violent effect beside other paintings of the time.

Two other Polish nationalists are Julius Kossak and his son Wojcich, who paint scenes of battle and hunting, full of temperament and go.

Czech history painters of note are Vaclav Brozik (1851-1899) who also did charming genre scenes of French peasantry,

**Czech History Painters.** and Jaroslav Cermak, who painted a whole Slav ethnograph, so to speak, types and scenes from all the Slav nations down to

Servia and Montenegro, where he spent many years.

A lonely figure was that of Anselm Feuerbach (1829-1880), a wholly spiritual genius who was not understood in the time of Makart, and who is counted among

**Feuerbach.** the greatest to-day. It took him many years to paint his heroic and gigantic pictures like

the "Battle of the Amazons," or the "Fall of the Titans"

(ceiling picture in the Vienna Academy), but the sweetly or sadly suggestive scenes like his "Iphigenia," "Hafis in the Drinking House," "Dante," show him at his best. He is Viennese only in so far as he taught at the Vienna Academy in the seventies, so this is all the space we can give him.

Another misjudged genius was Anton Romako, an impressionist long before his time. His mad life had an evil influence on his painting, however, and he did

**Romako.** not fulfil what his first work seemed to promise.

Decorative painting profited a good deal by this grand development of heroic art, and of architecture. Of the

**Decorative  
Painting.**

older school we may mention Laufberger, a good draughtsman, but cold. Gustav and Ernst Klimt and Franz Matsch have in their youth done brilliant ceiling-pieces for the Imperial Theatre (*Hofburgtheatre*), the Imperial Museum and many other secular buildings. They will be spoken of later as the originators of the Secession. Matsch's work is a bit sweet, and so is that of three otherwise brilliant painters, Karger, Veith, and Schram. Veith is perhaps the strongest, and where he is not too superficial and creamy, as in many of his girls' portraits, distinctly picturesque.

In Cracow there was the remarkable, if phantastic genius of Wyspianski, poet and painter, whose stained glass windows attracted great attention. He died quite young.

Taking the step from the historical to the genre painting of the younger generation, we must begin with Julius v.

**Genre Painters  
of the Younger  
Generation.**

Payer, the Polar explorer who discovered Franz Josef Land. He is an original talent, at his best when depicting life in the Polar regions. Other remarkable genre painters are Kurzbauer, a fresh and spontaneous colourist with simple and effective subjects, Angeli (born 1840) who later became famous for his elegantly finished portraits, that of Queen Victoria and the Kaiser among the number; Passini, with

Venetian scenes; Rumpler with quaint, delicate pictures something in the style of Pettenkofen; Hans Temple whose speciality are artists in their studios; Eduard Charlemont with most graceful nude figures; Delug, whose first success was a Tyrolese peasant woman hanging up her linen, a fresh, breezy picture; Jungwirth and Larwin with Austrian peasants, market-women, etc., done with dash and humour, but always honest and careful in detail; Hirschl-Heremy, who loves painting the sea with mythical accessories in cold violets and greens; "The Souls at the Acheron" is one of his best and most characteristic pictures; and Goltz with fascinating lyrical scenes, suggestive and tender.

The genre pictures of Jewish life, by Isidor Kaufmann, are full of feeling and subtle humour, beautifully finished and strong in colour. Other Jewish genre painters of note are Krestin, and Eichhorn, a versatile and sincere young painter, of whom much may still be expected.

Of the many brilliant Polish genre painters let us mention Zygmunt Aidukiewicz, with Polish national scenes, Stachiewicz with Madonnas in sweet pale grey tones, Zmurko, who revels in fantastic colours, Jan Styka and his young sons, one of them a veritable prodigy who painted a vigorous, gripping Prometheus on a large scale before he was sixteen.

The portrait has been very well represented of late. There is Angeli, who was mentioned above, and who has grown a bit too smooth in manner, though his fine draughtsmanship and vivid colour has not suffered. Probably at the top stands Leopold Horovitz, the painter not only of bodies, but of souls. His portraits in their picturesqueness remind one of Herkomer, the eyes particularly being so full of life that they alone seem to tell the story of their owner. Another profound psychologist and fresh, spontaneous painter is the Pole Pochwalski, a specialist in men portraits. The latest genius is Quincey Adams, whose portrait of a well-known

**Portrait  
Painters of the  
Younger  
Generation.**

**Horovitz.**

**Pochwalski.**

Vienna surgeon at work on his patient occasioned a great controversy. He is at his best when verging on genre, as in the portrait of his little girl in yellow silk, dancing to the 'cello. Schattenstein is a new painter of ladies, a man of undoubted talent but inclined towards coarseness sometimes, while Veith (who was named before) and Fröschl sin by the opposite extreme. Kraus, a careful and honest draughtsman, is characterised by a certain dash and a leaning towards impressionism, and so is Baschny. As pastellists we may name Josephine Swoboda, who has painted the English Royal Family, the delicate and vividly characteristic specialist in red chalk, Daviv Kohn, and Rauchinger, who works better in pastel than in oils.

A clever and most prolific artist, surpassing even the French in the lithographed portrait, was Kriehuber (1801-1876). He used to draw on the stone at once, without any preliminary studies, and scarcely ever corrected a line.

William Unger (born 1837) is the acknowledged master of the etching needle, but his chief work is copying, while Schmutzer and Michalek are almost exclusively portraitists. Saliger and Cossmann are two of the most popular modern etchers, the latter's speciality being Ex Libris.

Ernst Juch and Schliessmann are two of the best cartoonists in Europe, each in his own way.

In landscape, as in portrait-painting, there are so many first-class artists to-day that it is extremely hard to make

a selection. We must begin with Rudolf von  
**Landscape** Alt, who, born in 1812, lived through all  
**Painters.** the art revolutions of the century and  
**Alt.** emerged as modern as the youngest. He was

a master in water-colours, painting landscapes and architectures minutely and accurately, yet with inimitable grace and "go." In his long life he has produced thousands of small masterpieces, and, perhaps the finest are the last, painted with a hand that shook too much to *write* a single word. Alt made a virtue of necessity, doing these last pictures in the

pointillist manner. It is very characteristic of the man that he became the honorary president of the "Secession" that was founded by quite young men, boys almost—and he was ninety then.

Of the older generation there are Zimmermann, Lichtenfels and Schäffer, all vigorous talents, but comparatively colourless, better draughtsmen than painters.

A great step forward was made by the lyrical genius Schindler (1842-1892). He loved subdued tints at first, brown and grey, then gradually grew more and more

**Schindler.** natural and vivid. In this bright period he discovered the charm of the gaudy cottage gardens, and he has painted many graceful little pictures with these gaily coloured patches for their subject. He knew how to take nature in her grand moods as well, however, as his "Poplars," and above all the pathetic "Pax" (a ruined cemetery with cypresses, Imperial Museum), show.

He has had a good many inspired pupils, Karl Moll (who will be spoken of later), Tina Blau, and Olga Wisinger among the number. Tina Blau has a preference for sombre moods in landscape, while Olga Wisinger loves bright summer scenes and glowing autumn foliage.

Theodor von Hörmann (1840-1895) was also influenced by Schindler. He was a fanatic of nature, painting honestly what he saw, untouched by school or convention.

**Hörmann.** For many years he was sneered at and looked upon as half mad; to-day the younger generation make him out a martyr. When at last he began to be appreciated, he died of a cold he had caught actually sitting in the rising tide to paint the rollers.

Eugen Jettel and Rudolf Ribarz were masters of the French landscape seen in the French way.

Robert Russ is one of the most versatile modern landscape painters, finding new motifs and new manners almost every year, but always vigorous in drawing and vivid in colour. If one can speak of a speciality with this many-sided talent,

it is the South of Tyrol with the golden sun on gay autumn foliage. Tomec is a vigorous painter, of rocky alpine scenery for preference.

Then there is Hugo Charlemont, a lover of the quaint and dainty, with tiny pictures of a few birches in the sun, a cottage garden with spotted fowls, and the like.

Benno Knüpfer was a specialist in seascapes, a Böcklinesque example of which is the beautiful "Fight between Tritons," in the Imperial Museum, and so is Zoff, an ardent interpreter of the lovely Adriatic coast.

Ludwig Fischer, a most prolific painter and draughtsman in every technique, is a master in oriental landscapes, India and Egypt for preference, with fine yellows and purples.

Darnaut, one of the most mellow modern landscape painters, is a specialist in wood and water; his little lakes surrounded with old grey beeches, their foliage glistening with dew, are unsurpassed in their sweet dreaminess.

Brunner loves lonely houses on grassy plains, the evening sun painting a wall yellow. His pictures have a melancholy suggestive charm, but they are rather alike, so far.

Bernt and Bamberger, architects originally, follow in Alt's footsteps, painting bits of Vienna architecture quite in his vivid, bright, and yet carefully detailed way. Pippich is also one of the painter-chronists of Vienna town. He loves queer light effects, gas lamps burning through the snowy atmosphere of a large square, and the like.

Zetsche is a specialist in ruins and old towns, generally done in water-colours with a quaintly elaborate care.

This period also boasts of some remarkable animal painters, chief of whom was Rudolf Huber (1829-1896), a lover of browsing cattle, but an excellent landscape painter and portraitist at the same time.

**Animal  
Painters.**

His olive groves with sheep and shepherd bathed in sun remind one of Pettenkofen. Schrödl, Pausinger and Thoren must also be named, the last, a vigorous painter of cattle particularly, has left Vienna for Paris now.



In still life there are a great many painters of quality, most of whom have already been named in other connections, as they are not specialists in this one line—only one man has had the courage to renounce everything else and throw himself into this generally thankless branch of art with heart and soul, Schödl, now one of our most popular painters.

**Still Life  
Painters.**

And now let us throw a rapid glance at the latest development of Austrian art, known as "Secession" in Vienna. The "Künstlergenossenschaft," founded by Friedländer and others in the 'sixties, had grown a bit stiff and academic, not a breeze stirred to tell of the storm that was sweeping the west, names like Rodin, Meunier, Charpentier were unknown to the public, and their ways and methods undreamed of. A few youngsters who tried to follow in the steps of these daring souls were laughed at, their pictures remained unhung and unsold, and so they made up their minds to "secede," to leave the Künstlerhaus. They founded a magazine that raised a storm, their first exhibition in 1898, showing the best of foreign work and most promising beginnings of young Austrians, made a great impression on the public, and in the next year they had their own house, with a rather *bizarre* exterior (the Viennese call it the "Golden Cabbage"), but very pretty and serviceable inside.

**The  
"Secession."**

This was but fifteen years ago, and to-day the "Secession" has become too academic for some of its members again; they have left the fold and founded a new secession, the "Kunstschau." We shall, however, not follow this hyper-modern development, as we cannot regard it as anything else but a show of freaks bound to give place to serious art again in a short time.

There are two other modern artists' societies, the "Hagenbund" and the "Aquarellistenclub," and we shall now proceed to speak of the painters belonging to these three groups together. It must be mentioned once for all that a good

many of them have returned to the Künstlerhaus since, this exhibition having now lost its conservative character.

An erratic genius is the first president of the "Secession," Gustav Klimt (born 1862). He began with graceful, brilliant, but perfectly normal decorative painting.

**Klimt.** To-day he is the *enfant terrible* even of the very latest and wildest modern school, and has left the "Secession" as being too academic. Though greatly influenced by Beardsley and many Frenchmen, he is always original; every square inch of his paintings is unmistakably Klimt and no other. He is the most suggestive of the moderns, leaving a great deal unsaid always; this often gives his pictures charm, but more often they are phantastic riddles for the onlooker. His colours are beautiful. He is especially great at silvery light and all the other tricks of atmosphere. He paints everything, letting his imagination run riot in landscapes and portraits, as well as in genre and allegory.

Krämer is a faithful and most brilliant disciple of the orientalist Leopold Müller. His sunny and bright hued scenes and landscapes have a particular sweet fervour of their own when the subject is the Holy Land. Lately he has shown himself a sincere and vigorous portraitist also.

**Other  
Landscape  
Painters.**

One of the most remarkable landscape and genre painters is Carl Moll, already referred to. His large pictures, reproducing all the moods of nature, as the wistful "Ruin in the Park of Schönbrunn" (Imperial Museum), are beautiful and truthful in colouring, impeccable in draughtsmanship, and his interiors and still life pictures have the same qualities.

Stoitzner works on the same lines, only with a still greater love of detail.

Nowak and Karl Müller both paint the lovely Adriatic coast in warm tones.

Bernatzik used to depict legends, but of late he has become

a landscape and genre painter of remarkable qualities, particularly when he paints running water.

Then there is Hans Tychy with peaceful grassy plains, and the poetic Friedrich König with fairy tale accessories.

Wilt and Kasparides, with rather phantastic colours, Ranzoni and Suppanttschitsch, with beautiful views of river and wood, wholesome and vigorously painted, again exhibit in the Künstlerhaus.

Of Galician landscape painters there is Falat, a genius in depicting snowy woods, frozen brooks and the like, with the winter sun full on them, Stanislawski with sombre, melancholy plains, and many others.

Here we may also speak of a lonely figure, the greatest of modern landscape painters to our mind, who is generally considered an Italian—Giovanni Segantini.

**Segantini.** He was, however, born on Austrian soil, in Arco, in the year 1858. He studied in Milan for some years, and spent many years of his short life outside Austria, in Switzerland, but he has most often painted his native scenery and his native peasants, so he may safely be counted an Austrian. His technique, the progressive building up of tones by the employment of touches of pure colour set side by side, was invented by himself, though the priority has since been doubted. Whatever our opinion about the merit of this "scientific" painting, his handling has certainly justified it. His colours are of a transparent glow rarely to be found in oil paintings—except, perhaps, those of Böcklin—whether he paints a spring morning on his beloved heights above the Lake Garda, or a woman milking in the cow-house. Most of his paintings are mountain landscapes, but he has also some wonderful allegorical pictures, as the legend of the "Bad Mothers," which is hung in the "Modern Gallery" in Vienna, one of the most pathetic pictures painted in this century. Segantini died in a hut in the midst of his beloved Alps, only forty years old.

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Engelhart, for some years president of the "Secession," is a very Viennese genre painter, full of fun and laughter, and at the same time very clever at applied art of all kinds.

### Genre Painters.

Andri is a good colourist and full of humour also, clever at characterisation with simple means, but his drawing is too "modern," and the peasants he loves to paint marketing or church-going generally look like caricatures. List has the same subjects, but instead of being awkward and angular his figures are graceful, if a bit colourless.

Myrbach-Rheinfeld, director of the Vienna Arts and Crafts School, paints and draws soldiers in a masterly way, his composition being especially clever. Ludwig Koch is also a smart draughtsman, specially good at jolly bivouac scenes which he does in a style of his own, grounding them in pencil and then painting them in water-colours. Schwaiger has a humorous talent much in the style of the mediæval wood-cutters.

Rudolf Bacher, now president of the Secession, painted fine biblical scenes. Especially his "Quo Vadis?" made a great impression. Now he is a specialist in fantastic monsters and in woman portraits. The latter are the best that can be seen at the Secession now.

Roller is a great decorative artist and a wonderful teacher, famous as such abroad as well as at home. His ornamental letters are the best that were ever invented.

Otto Friedrich was a pious painter of saints and sacred subjects. Now he has become a rather enigmatic allegorist, who draws more than he paints. Much the same may be said of Jettmar, who is also very clever at black and white sketches.

Liebenwein and Wacik are fairy-tale painters in a charming decorative style, Wacik with peculiar fantastic figures, and so is Lefler, now decorative manager of the Hofburgtheater.

A most prolific, many-sided and ingenious painter is Emil

Orlik, who studied in Japan for more than a year, and now lives in his native town of Prague. He has also been to Scotland and has fallen in love with Edinburgh, which he has represented in all the moods of all the times of the day and the year. Whatever he does has a special grace all his own, be it landscape, genre, or decorative graphic work.

Uprka and Ruzicka are two Czech painters of peasants, exceptionally vigorous in drawing and colouring. There are many other new talents in Bohemia, of whom we may name Svabinsky, Hudecek and Preisler.

Malczewski is one of the Nationalist Poles. His Siberian sketches have made him famous all over Europe. Another well-known modern Pole is Mehoffer, rather too sweet and dainty for the large decorative work he is doing at present, but harmonious in colouring and faultless in draughtsmanship.

\* \* \* \* \*

The architectural rebirth of Vienna brought with it a new sculpture also, and a marvellous amount of good work was done in a very short time, the sculptors

**Sculpture.** seeming to spring up from nowhere after the barren years of the romantic epoch, though the enforced compromise between classicism and realism was a terrible impediment.

The only descendant of that time was Hans Gasser (1817-1868), a very teutonic romanticist. He is not unknown in England—the well-known Adam Smith in

**Gasser.** Oxford being his work. He was very prolific for a sculptor, being badly paid, and so grew rather superficial in time. But all his work is naturally graceful and suggestive, yet vigorous at the same time. In Vienna we have his charming *Donauweibchen* ("the Danube water fairy") in the Stadtpark, and twelve children's statues representing the months in the Belvedere Garden.

In a way the first naturalist was the bronze founder, Fernkorn (1813-1878), a specialist in equestrian statues.

**Fernkorn.** His best is that of the Archduke Carl, the victor of Aspern, though the boldly balanced pose was criticised at the time.

Kaspar von Zumbusch (born 1830) is the faithful historian among sculptors, programmatic and vigorous, but devoid of imagination. His Beethoven is a beautiful

**Zumbusch.** monument, the central figure in its rugged massiveness very characteristic, and the allegoric accessories, if not quite original, yet well grouped and effective in good sense. But the immense monument of Maria Theresa between the two museums of art and natural history cannot but be regarded as a failure. The whole effect is rather that of a merry-go-round, and the Empress' figure is too short and squat for the height on which it is placed. His equestrian statues (the Radetzky before the new War Office, among them), are very fine, and so are his numerous portrait busts.

Karl Kundmann (born 1838) is a graceful, characteristically Viennese talent. A good many Vienna monuments in prominent positions are his work, but only

**Kundmann.** a few have become deservedly popular, while some have excited a not unmerited ridicule.

His simple if rather uninspired and conventional Schubert, and the fine and original Grillparzer (with reliefs by Weyr) belong to the first group, while the pretentious and elaborate Tegetthoff column, with the small statue at the top and the ships' keels sticking out queerly on both sides, looks grotesque ; and the huge, deadly correct marble figure of Pallas Athene, with her golden spear and helmet, which has been put up before the beautiful low front of the House of Parliament, quite mars the effect of our finest Greek building. He is a very prolific artist, and has done dozens of other figures in Vienna and the provinces.

A Czech sculptor of a vigour and robustness never to be

found with the Viennese artists is Josef Myslbek whose fine statues of "Submission" and "Loyalty"

**Myslbek.** (on the attica of the House of Parliament) made him famous.

Edmund von Hellmer (born 1850), graceful and Viennese like Kundmann, is never *bizarre* like his compatriot, rather agreeably lucid. His Goethe (on the Ring-

**Hellmer.** strasse) and his Schindler (in the Stadtpark) are good examples of his sincere and unpretentious art. They sit there comfortably and at home, not grand and distant, it is true, but human and lovable. His most monumental work so far is the fountain representing Austria's land forces (*Oesterreichs Macht zu Lande*), an antique hero thrusting Austria's enemies, all kinds of monsters, into the depths.

The counterpart of this group is one by Weyr, Austria's Maritime Forces (*Oesterreichs Macht zur See*), and this certainly shows more imagination and humour. Alto-

**Weyr.** together Weyr (born 1847) is one of our most spontaneous and original sculptors, not a scholar or a thinker at all, but a robust worker. He has done a great many beautiful reliefs and medals too, in fact he began as a relief sculptor.

An inspired portraitist was Edgar Böhm, son of Josef Daniel, who lived in England for the greater part of his life as Queen Victoria's Court Sculptor. His

**Böhm.** lifelike Carlyle with its wonderful characterisation is a good example of his work.

Another great portraitist in sculpture was Oskar Tilgner 1844-1896). He has immortalised everybody who was anybody in Vienna during the second half

**Tilgner.** of the century with an unequalled virtuosity in making the best use of his material (often coloured marble), the likeness always to the life, particularly delightful when his models were women or children. He has only done very few monuments, the Vienna Mozart being

among them, but a good many charming little genre statuettes.

Strasser (born 1854) is a master in painted statuary, with strange fantastic subjects, Asiatic for choice. A large bronze group "Marc Antony's Chariot drawn by Lions," which now stands in the garden of the "Secession," shows his virtuosity as an animal sculptor, and his power of doing more monumental work than his usual small groups.

Amongst many other great talents of this generation, too many to name them all, we must mention Heinrich Natter (1844-1892), a titanic nature, characteristically Tyrolese. His best monuments are the colossal figure of Andreas Hofer in Innsbruck, on Mount Isel, and of Zwingli in Zürich, works of a compelling grandeur and simplicity.

Of the younger generation let us mention Klotz and Zelezny, two excellent wood carvers, the latter of a delightful humour and great strength in his rugged heads and busts, Dürnbauer, a clever realist who died young and full of promise, Rathausky with coloured statuary, Gurschner with graceful and original statuettes, and the medalists Waschmann, Radnitzky, Tautenhayn senior and junior, Schwartz, Scharff and Marschall.

An original and fantastic talent in the Hagenbund is Hejda (born 1868), the Klimt of sculpture, though suggestive rather than incomprehensible, a lover of beasts and monsters, painter and sculptor at the same time.

We have attempted to give an idea of the countless forces that are at work to-day in the Austrian, especially the Viennese, world of art. It is quite clear, however, that of the living artists we could only pick out a few, often at random, for we have not nearly enough space to do justice to them all, and to enumerate mere names is useless.



## CHAPTER X

### MUSIC IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

MUSIC in Austria may be regarded as a harmonious whole up to the middle of the century, for during that time Beethoven, in one sphere, and Schubert, in the other, were the autocrats of the musical world. From that time onward, however, it is the same in music as in fine art and in literature—divergent influences battling with each other and original genius going its own way, so that there is no prevalent movement to be traced.

There is the treasure of popular music which is unearthed when nationalism begins to assert itself with the several races. There is the all-pervading influence of Wagner. There is the great reactionary Brahms, Wagner's anti-emperor, as the critic Hanslick calls him, and there are the impetuously progressive moderns, Gustav Mahler and Hugo Wolf. Again, there are the alluring strains of the Vienna waltzes and musical comedies which have so much grown in importance lately.

But let us begin with the giant who stands at the gate of the century and dominates it for several decades.

Ludwig van Beethoven was born in Bonn in the year 1770, as the scion of an old family of musicians. But he came to Vienna as a youth, and never left it again for  
**Beethoven.** any length of time; the hot summers he spent in the immediate surroundings, where many a lonely spot has been hallowed by his rambles. He only counts his work from 1791, when he came to Vienna for good, and thus we may in reason look upon him as an Austrian.

He was sent to Vienna to study with Mozart, but was recalled home at first, so that his real teachers, apart from Haydn, whom he left in disgust because of the dear old man's too lenient ways, were Schenk, a humorous composer of melodious popular operas; Albrechtsberger, the famous theorist; and Salieri, Mozart's successful rival.

Beethoven's patron, the Elector of Cologne, an Austrian prince, introduced him to the Vienna aristocracy, and soon the young man, though a stout Republican, was hand and glove with men like Prince Lichnowski, Count Rasumovski, Prince Lobkowitz, and later, with the gifted and generous Archduke Rudolf.

Beethoven was master of several instruments, having learnt to play the violin and the hautboy when quite a baby, and later, the organ and piano. This latter instrument remained his favourite always, and he was the greatest performer of his time.

**Beethoven as  
a Performer.**

His pupil Czerny has preserved his rendering of Bach's preludes and fugues, and these notes are an invaluable study for the pianist to this day. He was also famous for his improvisations, out of which grew some of his finest works, such as the "Moonlight Sonata."

In spite of the patronage of princes and sovereigns—at its height in the year 1814, when during the Vienna Congress crowned heads literally vied with each other in honouring the democratic composer—Beethoven was never quite free from care.

**A Troubled  
Life.**

Since 1809 he had a pension allowed him by some of his patrons, but it was not large and dwindled to next to nothing after the bankruptcy year of 1811, and though he had no family of his own, he had to provide for a good-for-nothing young orphan nephew. Besides these constant pecuniary cares which were not borne by Beethoven in the usual light-hearted way of genius, the unhappy man grew hard of hearing, and eventually stone deaf. His was by nature a melancholy disposition, and when the political reaction set in, and the understanding and appreciation of his revolutionary genius gradually faded, he became embittered, and spent the last years of his life in loneliness and illness, getting release from his sufferings in 1827. A small community of faithful friends assembled at his grave, and Grillparzer, the dramatist, himself a good musician, spoke at the funeral.

Beethoven's development was a systematic and steady one, with none of the fitfulness so often found in genius. He progressed constantly in form and in substance, and his grandiose creative imagination, so far from giving out, grew more profuse and inventive from year to year.

He began with pianoforte music, going on to stringed quartets, quintets, sextets, and even one septet. The quartets were his particular favourites. He wrote Chamber Music. seventeen of them, but the five last, composed when he was deaf, grew out of all comprehensible rules of harmony, and belong to the most difficult and obscure music even to-day. Of his pianoforte sonatas, though each is a perfect jewel, the grandest are Opus 3, Sonata Pathetique; Opus 5, Waldsteinsonata; Opus 57, Sonata Appassionata, and Opus 27, the Moonlight Sonata. Of his violin music perhaps the finest is the Kreutzer Sonata, so instinct with passion that Tolstoi, fanatic that he was, took exception to it. Beethoven has also written six sonatas for the 'cello, and one for the horn.

All these works, especially in their merry and sentimental parts, contain allusions to folk-songs, of which Beethoven was a passionate collector. In many of these scherzos we can hear those simple little motives, warm and pulsing with life.

Beethoven's songs—he has not written many—are original to the last degree. The cycle, "An die ferne Geliebte" (1816) is probably the best known, if we except

Songs. "Mignon's Song."

His instrumental music shows Beethoven at the height of his power. As an instrumentalist he has achieved effects not nearly reached by the moderns in spite of their unscrupulous use of musical and other resources. He used the mediums created by Mozart and Haydn, and developed them further, deepening their substance and completing their structure, so that the symphony owes him quite a new life.

Symphonies.

Of his nine symphonies the most famous are the second, written in a happy and cheerful mood; the "Eroica," which was originally named after Bonaparte, but stamped upon in fury and renamed when Beethoven heard of the misdeeds of his hero, particularly the murder of the Duc d'Enghien; the merrily rustic "Pastoral Symphony," the first example of programme music; and the last grandiose bequest of the deaf master who revelled in spherical harmonies, the ninth with the finale on Schiller's "Ode to Joy" (*Lied an die Freude*).

Though Beethoven is unquestionably the greatest dramatist among musicians, he has written but one opera, "Fidelio."

It stands between Mozart's "Magic Flute" and Wagner's musical dramas, the herald of a new time. He has written three overtures for it, and Wagner calls the third of them "the summit of dramatic art." Of his smaller dramatic works the music for Goethe's "Egmont" is probably the most remarkable.

In the sphere of church music Beethoven's "Missa Solemnis" is the grandest, most passionately religious work ever written. Beethoven regarded it as his masterpiece.

**Church Music.**

Some twenty years after his death his works began to be appreciated again, they were played in concerts now and then, and at last Bülow, Liszt and Wagner knew him for what he was and succeeded in making him popular. To-day Beethoven is the unquestioned sovereign of orchestral and chamber music.

**Beethoven's Interpreters.**

In Vienna his grandest interpreters were and are the conductors of the famous Philharmonic Concerts, Hans Richter, Gustav Mahler, Felix Weingartner, and of the two other great orchestral societies, the *Gesellschaft der Musikfreunde* and the *Tonkünstlerorchester*, Ferdinand Löwe, Franz Schalk, and Oskar Nedbal. His chamber music is played by two remarkable quartets, Rosé and Prill. And there is scarcely any violin or piano concert without Beethoven as the

star of the programme. Thus he is more truly alive to-day than in the last years of his life in the body, when he had no great interpreters at all.

Beethoven had no very great pupils to follow in his wake, but a number of earnest and sincere musicians remained true to the classic principles. Among them are Czerny (1791-1857), whose piano exercises are still played with great success by pupils of all grades, a brilliant performer, pupil of Beethoven and teacher of Liszt. Dussek (1761-1812), who composed warm and graceful pieces for the piano. Hummel (1878-1837), the pupil of Mozart and friend of Beethoven, who was a prodigy as a pianist, but unlike many such, kept what he promised as a child; his piano concerts in the style of Mozart, being elegant and brilliant, are still very popular. Moscheles, the pupil of Salieri and friend of Beethoven who has composed some fine pieces for the piano, particularly a much played concert, and exercises for advanced pupils. And Diabelli (1781-1858), whose melodious simple pieces are well beloved by the young folk to this day.

There was one man in Vienna then who might have become another Beethoven, but he died young, just when he was getting near the titan's style—it was Franz Schubert. Schubert, the incomparable composer of songs, whose Eighth Symphony has some of Beethoven's sublimity.

Schubert was born in 1796 as the son of a poor board-school teacher in the Viennese suburb of Lichtental. Like Haydn, he entered the Court Choir when a boy of ten. He was extremely precocious as a composer, having written church music, songs, sonatas, even symphonies and operas before he was thirteen. At this time he was also taught by Salieri, beside his father and uncle, who were both musical, but in spite of his amazing and quite manifest talent, there was little chance for him for a long time, and he had to help his father in teaching little boys. At last the well-known tenor

Vogl sang his compositions in his concerts, and Schubert began to be known.

He never came into the great world like Beethoven, but he grew to be the centre of a famous circle of Bohemians in Vienna, partly poets like Grillparzer and Bauernfeld, partly painters like Moritz von Schwind and Kupelwieser. Schubert, with his charming, childlike simplicity and sunny dispositions, was the soul of the merry circle, and countless are the pictures that have been drawn and painted, and the stories that have been told, of their adventures. Only quite lately, in 1912, the famous novelist Bartsch has made him the hero of a novel (*Schwammerl*). Beethoven and Schubert never came into personal contact, but Schubert idolised Beethoven as a far-off god, and Beethoven was a warm admirer of Schubert's songs, in which he recognised the spark of genius.

Schubert died in 1828, leaving hundreds of masterpieces behind him—and yet how many more, and of what still sublimer quality, could he have written, had he been spared to reach at least middle age!

Schubert is the most Viennese of the great Austrian composers; all his songs were conceived in the Vienna mountains and woods, in sight of the green hills, and while drinking the young wine grown on them. For Schubert actually composed in the garden of the inn, sitting on the mail coach, lying in the grass, or wandering merrily through the wood. The songs were carelessly scribbled on the back of an old envelope, on a cuff, anywhere, as easily as if they were insignificant notes.

Schubert's songs differ essentially from those written before his time, the most remarkable progress being that they are "composed throughout," the tune running not only through one verse, and thus having to do for entirely different sentiments, but following the poet closely throughout the whole poem. Schubert has written about seven hundred songs. It is little short of

**Songs.**

incredible that one man could find such perfect expression for Schiller's grandiose and melancholy "Complaint of the Maiden," for Goethe's weirdly suggestive ballad "The Erl King," for Müller's merry and sentimental wanderer's songs, and scores of others, differing from each other not only in substance and sentiment, but in the very essence of thought and feeling. His Viennese pliability and soft, clinging nature did him good service here. A great many of his songs only became known years after his death, and a complete edition was not published until late in the nineties of the last century. Now they are sung again and again; in Vienna there is scarcely one evening in the season when there is no Schubert on the programme of one or the other singer, and a great many stars have made Schubert their speciality. Frau Staegemann and Meschaert, the world-famous Dutch tenor, for instance, have their several Schubert evenings here every year.

Apart from the songs with pianoforte accompaniment Schubert has written beautiful part-songs with orchestra; the most famous are the sublime eight-voiced "Song of the Spirits above the Waters" (Goethe), the four-voiced "Night Song in the Forest" and "Miriam's Song of Victory."

We possess a great many compositions for the pianoforte from Schubert's pen also, especially for four hands. In concerts—and in the drawing-room, too—the "Impromptus" and the "Moments Musicaux" are most popular. These latter, as well as the "German Dances" and the ballet music for Chézy's "Rosamonde," are among his gayest and most graceful rhythmic pieces.

Of Schubert's chamber music we must mention the "Trout Quintet," in which the song, "The Trout," is used as the central movement, a piece full of the gurgling of little mountain streams and the glint of the sun on foam and ripples; and the Quartet in D minor with the solemn song, "Death and

Part  
Music.

Piano  
Pieces.

Chamber  
Music.

the Maiden," for the central movement. The novelist Otto Ernst has written a beautiful story about this quartet.

Schubert's church music is still very popular, but his operas are forgotten. His symphonies, particularly the second, the seventh and the eighth and last,

**Symphonies.** which has remained unfinished, are generally appreciated and played frequently.

Schubert's memory is still green in Vienna ; he lives in every heart, but he has left no successors in any sense, much less pupils. After him came the death-in-life of Metternich's era, and music, art and literature alike languished. Particularly as regards the world of song, a desert stretches between Schubert and the next great composer—Johannes Brahms.

Brahms (1833-1897) was, like Beethoven, an Austrian by choice, not by birth, having been born in Hamburg. He

lived rather restlessly for the first half of his life, going from town to town, but in 1862 he came to Vienna—and stayed. Here he wrote his grandest work, here he felt at home, and here he was fully appreciated. The well-known Vienna critic, Max Kalbeck, has written a truly monumental biography of the master. The grim old bachelor was a well-known and well-beloved figure, and all Vienna mourned him as their own when he died, like Beethoven, still in the ascendant.

Brahms was a great admirer of Schumann, who first made the young man known, but his work is not Schumannesque in the least. In fact Brahms was rather a successor of Beethoven, even of Bach, than of any romantic composer. We shall presently speak of his most important compositions, the instrumental music. Here we are interested in him chiefly as a composer of songs. He has written a good many, all characterised by deep feeling, and a certain northern harshness. In spite of these qualities—so different from Schubert's



Viennese sweetness and pliability—which generally do not make for popularity, Brahms' songs and part music are amongst the most often performed, surely good evidence that even in the days of music halls and comic opera, Vienna has still preserved its good taste.

Another original genius was Hugo Wolf (1860-1903), whose songs are now the most popular in the Vienna concerts beside

**Wolf.** Schubert's, but were unknown or laughed at in his lifetime. He had a stroke of madness in him always, and spent the last ten years of his life in perfect darkness of mind. His songs are characterised by boldly original harmonies, and by the independent part of the piano, which is not only accompaniment, but quite a voice by itself. Amongst his hundreds of songs the compositions of Goethe and Mörike poems are the finest. He has further composed a choir piece "Feuerreiter" and several unfinished operas.

Mahler, the great conductor and instrumentalist, of whom we shall still have occasion to speak, also wrote strangely sweet songs, original, sometimes weird in

**Mahler.** harmony and structure.

Besides these composers of serious songs Austria has produced a good many popular songsters whose merry airs are sung in the street as well as in the drawing-room. The most famous

**Koschat.** of those is Koschat with his Carinthian Quartets, melodious pieces full of fun and sentimentality.

And this brings us to a characteristically Austrian branch of music—the waltz.

The waltz has its origin in the "Ländler," a rustic dance popular in the Alps. Schubert had written some charming Ländler already, but the species was developed

**The Waltz.** and brought to an undreamed-of popularity by the two friends, Lanner and Strauss and by the latter's son.

Joseph Lanner (1801-1843), was the conductor of a famous band, in which Johann Strauss the Elder (1804-1849) played the bass viol. They both composed waltzes

**Lanner.** full of melody and feeling, instinct with grace and sweetness, but they were still surpassed by Strauss' son, Johann Strauss the Younger. His father had already achieved European fame when he left Lanner's orchestra, and travelled all over Europe with one of his own, playing in Paris and London before crowned heads.

**Strauss, Father and Son.** He became conductor of the Imperial Court Orchestra, and his son followed in his shoes. Johann Strauss the Younger's work as a composer of musical comedies will be spoken of elsewhere, here we must occupy ourselves with the "Waltz King," as he used to be called. He has written hundreds of waltzes, and each has a new idea to itself, each is full of swing and jollity, or of sweet pathos. They are played all over the world, in hut and palace, by barrel organs and by pompous orchestras, and though one has heard them thousands of times, yet they never pall.

In the latest musical comedies there are some melodious waltzes, too, as is only natural; especially Lehar and Oscar Strauss have written some catchy and yet not superficial ones.

From these lighter strains let us turn to the grand opera, at this time under the influence of Romanticism, Weber in particular. There are no great Austrian representatives of this movement, but some found their second home in Vienna, and so may be mentioned here.

There is the Englishman, Sir Julius Benedict (1804-1885), composer of "The Gipsy's Warning" and "The Lily of Killarney." He became director of the Vienna Kärnthnertortheatre on Weber's recommendation and spent most of his

life here.

Then Marschner (1795-1861), Weber's most gifted successor,

whose "Hans Heiling" and "Templar and Jewess" still stir the pulses of modern audiences with their inspired music, lived in Vienna as a young man.

Gustav Albert Lortzing (1801-1851), that cheerful genius, whose natural gaiety no adversity could quell, spent some years in Vienna as conductor of the *Theater an der Wien*, and wrote "The Armourer" here. Beside this opera, he has written "The Czar and the Carpenter," "The Poacher," and "Undine," and their popular humour and sweetly quaint melodies have kept them their place on the repertory of all the great theatres to this day. Lortzing wrote his own books, and very good they are.

Konradin Kreutzer (1780-1849) came to Vienna in 1822, became Beethoven's fast friend and stayed here, with one interruption, until his death. He was conductor in the Josephstädter Theater, and for this opera-house he wrote "The Night Camp of Granada," his greatest work. In Vienna he is best known by the music for Raimund's famous melodrama "The Spendthrift" (*Verschwender*).

Last, but not least, there is Otto Nicolai (1810-1849), the composer of the immortal "Wives of Windsor," the finest and most graceful German comic opera, excepting Mozart's "Figaro." Nicolai was of great importance for Vienna by starting the Philharmonic Concerts, an institution which has become one of the features of Vienna musical life.

The modern musical drama, as created, or at least perfected, by Wagner, found worthy exponents in Austria, though mostly of a more lyrical and romantic turn of mind than the master.

Ignaz Brüll (1846-1905), the famous pianist and teacher, wrote several operas, all tuneful and original. The best of them, the comic opera "The Golden Cross,"

Brüll. which belongs to the standing repertory of all German opera houses, is considered to be the finest of its kind.

Karl Goldmark (born 1830) came out of a Hungarian ghetto like Brüll, and, like him, left it for Vienna when a child. His is an amazingly vivid personality.

**Goldmark.** Even now that he is an old man of more than eighty, he is still able to take to new roads and to surprise the public again and again, as with "The Winter's Tale." His greatest success (in 1875) was "The Queen of Sheba." Besides this opera, which is remarkable for its Oriental voluptuousness in style and colour, the fairy opera "Merlin," the charming "Cricket on the Hearth" (after Dickens), and his latest "The Winter's Tale" (after Shakespeare), are often played on all the European stages.

Probably the greatest successor of Wagner was Friedrich Smetana (1824-1848), the Czech nationalist composer. Like Beethoven he grew deaf in his prime, and some

**Smetana.** time afterwards his mind gave way also, so that he was brought to an asylum. He was a pupil and an ardent admirer of Liszt's, whom he surpasses in warmth and tenderness. His works acquired European fame, but only long after his death—in fact he only became known outside Bohemia towards the end of the century. To-day his symphonies and chamber music as well as his operas with their tender humour, their vigour and tunefulness are performed everywhere with the greatest success. The best known are "Dalibor" and "The Bartered Bride."

The Styrian Wilhelm Kienzl (born 1857), was a well-known critic before his pathetic opera "The Christian Beggarman" (*Der Evangelimann*), made him famous all

**Kienzl.** over the world. He has since had another great success with the opera "Der Kuhreigen" ("The Herdsman's Song"), sweetly pathetic like the first, with effective dramatic scenes and a very clever use of popular motives, such as the well-known Swiss tune which gives the piece its title. The story is by the Styrian novelist Bartsch.

Bittner, like Kienzl, was a clever writer before he began to compose. His opera "The Musician" made quite a stir in Vienna, and great things are expected of

**Bittner.** him still.

In Vienna there is a hypermodern movement in music as in art, the chief exponent for the opera being Franz Schreker, a gifted composer, but certainly on the wrong track.

Almost every one of the modern dramatists in music is also remarkable as a symphonist. Before we speak of their work in this direction, however, we must consider the two great symphonists *par excellence*, Brahms and Bruckner.

**Instrumental  
Music.**

We have already had occasion to speak of Brahms as a composer of songs, but his chief greatness lies in his symphonic and chamber music. He has written practically everything except opera, and all his work bears the same stamp: it is ruthlessly logical, like Bach's, and, like that old master's, full of melodious ideas; but it has a certain harshness and sublimity absent from Bach's sweetly tender and lucid strains, and Brahms' construction is more complicated.

**Brahms.**

His symphonies and overtures are the greatest since Beethoven, his part songs, especially the wonderful "Requiem" for soli, choir and orchestra, and the "Song of Fate" for choir and orchestra, are amongst the most impressive compositions ever written; and his chamber music, in spite of its great difficulties, is very popular in concerts and with all advanced players, be they professionals or amateurs.

Anton Bruckner, like Beethoven and Brahms a bachelor to his death, lived (1824-1896) a quiet, retired life until 1884, when Nikisch, the great conductor, drew

**Bruckner.** his symphonies to light and made him known.

It is difficult to place Bruckner. He is anything but romantic, in fact he was often called reactionary, and yet he has certainly learned a good deal from Wagner,

especially as regards technicalities. Be that as it may, his vigorous, vivid music with its touch of the sublime and its wonderful instrumentation assure him a place among the greatest composers of the century. He has also written fine choir pieces, and was an unrivalled organist.

An excellent contrapuntist like Bruckner, but romantic through and through, was the Styrian Heinrich von Herzogenberg (1843-1900) who lived in Berlin for the greater part of his life. His poetical and profound part songs as well as his chamber music are well liked by the serious public.

Brüll and Goldmark have both written remarkable chamber music, and the latter is also the author of a beautiful programmatic symphony called "A Rustic Wedding," as well as of an overture to Kleist's "Penthesilea."

Smetana has composed a great deal of instrumental music, the finest being a monumental programmatic work for orchestra, "My Fatherland," in which he has used Czech popular tunes to great advantage.

Another Czech composer of note is Franz Dvorak (1841-1904); he has composed melodious and rhythmical symphonies and string quartets that are extremely popular.

The hero of the moderns in symphonical music is Gustav Mahler (1860-1911), the greatest conductor of the century, an organising genius under whom the Vienna opera had its golden age. There is no doubt of his genius, but his music is certainly *bizarre* and often obscure. His symphonies demand a good deal from the performers as well as from the listeners, but his music grows upon you, and very likely a future public will understand him perfectly. He has a passionately devoted group of admirers in Vienna, and his works are comparatively often played here. His greatest successes

were the part song "The Lament" (*Das klagende Lied*), with really beautiful and quite lucid parts, and his songs.

A remarkable phenomenon is a boy composer, Erich Wolfgang Korngold, the son of a notable critic, who at the age of thirteen wrote perfectly mature,

**Korngold.** strikingly original music, such as a trio, and a pantomime which was performed in the Imperial Opera with great success. There is a certain grace and humour in his work which have won him the name of "the second Mozart," and though this is no doubt an exaggeration, still great things may be expected of him. The queer long name will probably be one to remember.

## CHAPTER XI

### VIENNA

THE foreigner, on coming to Vienna, is struck by the strange attitude of the Viennese as regards their town. It is plain that they love it dearly, even passionately—

**The Grumbling Viennese.** and yet they continually disapprove, carp, scold; they are never satisfied.

This is characteristic of the people, but is also characteristic of the town.

Vienna is, indeed, lovable. It is without question the most beautiful town of Europe—for Paris, which alone can compare with it as regards architectural beauty, has not by far the charming surroundings Vienna is blessed with. It is as full of art treasures as any other of the great capitals, and it makes better use of them than most. Its music is unrivalled. Its literary and theatrical life still holds its own against the rivalry of Berlin; in some respects it is even exemplary.

All this goes for much, and the indefinable, almost feminine charm that lies over it all goes for more.

And yet, and yet—there is a deplorably definite something which mars the charming impression again and again—it is the slatternly, humdrum, reactionary administration of the place, or to express it negatively, the absence of municipal enterprise, of fresh, progressive, truly public spirit.

We shall content ourselves with naming a few instances to illustrate the doings of this erratic, contrary *genius loci*.

There is the unsatisfactory traffic, for instance. Vienna has unrivalled surroundings, and beautiful public gardens with delightful cafés and restaurants, where you can have your tea or dinner in the open, and, of course, on hot days all Vienna rushes to these havens of refuge. Electric trams go everywhere, and you should reach the furthest of these



places, the "Eisvogel" in the Prater, for instance, in half an hour from the city. But can you? The cars run at interminable intervals, and when at last, sometimes after seven or ten minutes, the longed-for vehicle arrives, it is full up, of course. So you wait on. By the time the next car comes dozens of people are anxious to get in, and a perfect scrimmage ensues, to the detriment of eyes, ribs, feathers and personal dignity.

This is a thing of daily occurrence, especially at the end of business hours, and when the theatres open; and the authorities cannot be made to see that they must run more cars, larger cars, (seats on the roof are unknown so far), and if necessary build an underground railway in the city, a project that has been spoken of for years and is no nearer being carried out than ten years ago.

Then the mediæval way of street cleaning! In summer, when the famous Vienna breezes are merrily chasing clouds of dust along the thoroughfares, groups of grave, elderly fogies—as a rule, with pipes in their mouths—may be seen and heard holding animated conversations in a strange language (the Viennese dialect is a mystery to many who have been born and bred here), and now and then aiding the winds in sending a cloud of dust into the air by means of their antique brooms. It is true that even Vienna streets are sometimes sprinkled, though rarely with a disinfectant, but never by any means before they are swept.

Shall we speak of the horrors caused by the "Mistbauer," the man who bears away dust and rubbish in open carts, and to whom the dustbins must be brought into the street by the servants?

Or of the world famous "Hausmeister," the dragon who guards every house, who knows all about your income and your debts, the illnesses your children have or have not had, the characters of your servants—and yourself; the man to whom you must pay an obolus of at least twopence whenever you wish to leave your house after ten o'clock at night. For

City of  
California



*Photo by*

ST. STEPHEN'S, VIENNA

*Stauda.*

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ABSORUAC

you are not allowed to have a latch-key—oh no! You must actually ring the caretaker up, see him or his wife come straight out of bed in an attire neither graceful to the eye nor particularly decent, and pay him for letting you in or out.

But enough! We have fulfilled a disagreeable duty, at the same time gratifying the characteristically Viennese inclination of grumbling at our dear mother town. Now let us proceed to sing her praises.

As has been fully explained in another chapter, Vienna has in the reign of the present Emperor and on his initiative, experienced the most wonderful architectural development. In addition to this hundreds of parks, gardens, small grass-plots and flower beds have been either opened to the public or newly created, and the effect of the whole is indeed lovely.

**Architectural  
Beauty  
Unrivalled.**

The city proper, though growing more and more a mere business quarter, with hideous "modern" buildings, still boasts of a good many fine old houses, baroque and empire, and some thoroughfares and squares have quite kept their dignified old-world appearance, as, for instance, the Freyung and Am Hof, two neighbouring flower and fruit markets flanked by fine old palaces.

But the glory of Vienna is the Ringstrasse, a broad street planted with four rows of trees in the manner of the Paris boulevards, and together with the "Kai" (the Danube embankment) embracing the city proper. I suppose it is the finest street in the world, with its succession of palaces, splendid public buildings, and monuments, most of them placed to their best advantage in parks or garden plots.

Altogether there is a profusion of flowers in Vienna—wherever there is the least space, as in squares or circuses, little beds of them are planted, the windows and balconies of private and business houses are decorated with them, and even the street lamps are brightly festooned with them during seven months of the year.

The public gardens, of which there are a great many, are distinct individualities—not two bear any resemblance to each other except as regards one great drawback: the lawn must not be stepped on anywhere.

We cannot possibly name them all, so shall content ourselves with speaking of a few.

First of all there is the Prater, something like Hyde Park, Richmond, Ascot, Hampstead Heath and Shepherd's Bush all rolled into one. It covers an immense

The  
Prater.

area to the East of the town, between the Danube Canal and the Danube itself. It is really an immense common, densely wooded in parts, in others dotted with beautiful groups of trees hundreds of years old. There are excellent restaurants and coffee-houses, all with large gardens, some of the former famous for their fish fresh from the Danube, most of them unpretending, but still frequented by the better classes of an evening. There is music in all of them, generally a regimental band. It may be mentioned here that the Austrian regimental bands are excellent, indeed. It is a joy for the most fastidious to listen to them.

One part of the Prater (called Nobelprater) is a beautiful, well cultivated park in English style, intersected by stately chestnut avenues for driving and riding. The finest of those, the Hauptallee, has the same function as Rotten Row. It also connects the Nobelprater with the Freudenuau, the Vienna racing ground. There are two fashionable coffee-houses, where light refreshments are taken in the open air: one on a terrace overlooking a strip of ornamental water (Konstantinhügel), the other in a delightfully wild and woody bit (Krieau). This latter is frequented by the upper ten thousand, who have their milk and eggs there after their morning rides, and their coffee when driving in the afternoon. It is a good place to study the Vienna aristocracy, and, of course, the demi-monde.

Then there is the famous Wurstelprater, so called after the "Wurstel," the Austrian equivalent for Punch. The Wurstelprater is the delight of the children and of the people, servants

and private soldiers in particular. It consists of several long avenues where all kinds of innocent amusements are offered—a kind of perpetual village fair. Hundreds of booths and merry-go-rounds entice the passer-by, all with deafening organ music, and with hoarse criers trying to outdo each other in sentiment, in wit, and in all kinds of antics. In former, simpler times, the chief attractions used to be the lady without legs, the calf with six legs, the mermaid preserved in spirits, the giant lady, the pigmies, the hairy lady, the strong man, the diver with his bell. Now there are giant wheels, scenic railways, flip-flaps, and above all, moving picture shows, to oust these sensations of a still unsophisticated time, and the latter are disappearing. Two of them only have preserved their old popularity: the Punch and Judy shows before which the happy, eager baby audiences still laugh and cry exactly as hundreds of years ago, and the "Watschenmann," a peculiar Viennese invention: it is a measurer of muscular force in the guise of a comic figure with a terribly swollen cheek, on which the heroes of the suburbs apply their punches and boxes, thereby venting their surplus strength on this harmless victim and going home satisfied, instead of trying to show off before their girls on some human opponent or other.

This part of the Prater also holds the exhibition grounds, the centre of which is the huge round hall called the "Rotunde." From the World's Fair in 1873 to the Adria Exhibition in 1913 dozens of important shows have been held there and have drawn numbers of foreigners to Vienna. In winter the Rotunde is often used as a people's theatre, for instance, by Reinhardt in his mass productions. In it there is room for five thousand spectators.

The Stadtpark, the Volksgarten and the Schwarzenbergpark are probably the finest gardens in the city proper. The Volksgarten is quite level and so lacks the charming effects produced by the undulating grounds of the Stadtpark with its beautiful lake and stream, or of the terraces in the Schwarzenbergpark

Other Public  
Gardens.

with its old, old trees, but is the most central of all and so the most frequented. There are fine monuments in all these gardens, and the Volksgarten also boasts a small Greek temple, the exact reproduction of the temple of Theseus on the Acropolis. It is a great pity that the thousands of town-children playing in these pleasure-grounds have not one single grass-plot on which to step; the lawn is rigidly guarded, and the babies are forced to play in the dust of the gravel paths. There are fashionable coffee-houses and restaurants in all the large Vienna parks, the most famous probably being that of the Volksgarten. In this respect Vienna compares altogether most favourably with other great cities, where very few restaurants offer the possibility of having your meals in the open.

Of the public gardens on the outskirts of the town we can only mention Schönbrunn, the Emperor's world-famous Court Park. It is an imitation of Versailles, but far prettier and less formal, because the site is more advantageous, with little undulations and a commanding hill, on which a charming temple, the "Gloriette," has been erected. The Emperor has thrown open the whole gardens to the public except for a small space reserved for himself. Part of them contain the grand menagerie, which is also open to the public without any fee, and so are the hot-houses, the immense palm-house amongst them. This Zoo is frequented by thousands of children always who are good friends with most of the animals, especially with the elephant-babies of whom Vienna is inordinately proud, as it is the only European town which has succeeded in breeding them.

Altogether there are more children to be seen in the Vienna public gardens than in London, and the reason is this: The Viennese still live in flats like the Parisians, ten and twenty families in one house—without a garden. With the growth of the town the English system of one-family-houses with a strip of garden has come in, it is true, but so far only the rich, or at least

Vienna Lives  
in Flats.

# MAP OF CANTONIA



*Stauda.*

**KARLSKIRCHE, VIENNA**

*Photo by*



YO YIMU  
ABSOULTAO

the well-to-do have been able to indulge in this luxury. At present there are two districts in Vienna which look like prosperous English suburbs: Hietzing in the South and the Währing Cottage Quarter, as it is called, in the north-west. But there is no such thing as the charming London suburbs of the lower middle class with their tiny houses and gardens—in place of them we have nothing but refined slums. Such slums, more or less, are the districts of Simmering, Ottakring, Hernals and Floridsdorf, these being the chief manufacturing quarters: straight, gloomy, uninteresting streets with beehives of houses five stories high, the children playing in the streets and dodging the trams as dexterously as the sparrows.

The chief shop districts are the city itself, the Graben and Kärntnerstrasse having the best and most expensive shops,

something like Bond Street, and Mariahilf,

**Shopping.** where the largest thoroughfare, the Mariahilferstrasse, may be well compared to Oxford

Street. The Vienna shops are still specialised and so far only one firm has tried the experiment, which has turned out very well, of forming itself into a general store after the English and American system.

But on the whole the leisurely way of going from shop to shop is more to the taste of the Viennese. They have not

yet learned to "hustle" in any way; "Gemüt-

"Gemütlich-lichkeit über Alles" is their untranslatable

keit." device and "Gemütlichkeit" is perhaps best

explained by saying that it is the contrary of "hustling."

The Viennese are, indeed, easy-going in the extreme, even casual, the despair of their northern cousins, the Prussians, in business dealings. On the other hand they are genial and

pleasant, courteous and obliging, so that one often forgives them their sins. They are also quick and smart, if rather careless and slack, and though to do business with them one has to look for them in the coffee-houses, one will generally find that this loss of time is amply balanced by the way the deal is concluded.

The coffee-house plays a great part in the life of the Viennese. There are few clubs, none to compare with the English, and so the coffee-houses take their place for the men-folk. Besides, they also stand for the London teashops and reading-rooms. There are upwards of 700 cafés in Vienna, not counting the smaller ones who are only frequented by the lower classes, and they are always full in the afternoon and evening. All the Vienna papers are kept, in the larger cafés in the city a great many foreign ones also, and so people sit there for hours reading. Billiards, cards, check, and dominoes are also played, but only by men, while a great many ladies frequent the coffee-houses to have their tea, or rather coffee, and read. Most of the cafés have some open-air space to use in summer, and, indeed, the Ringstrasse offers much the same aspect as a Paris boulevard in this regard; at every few steps the pavement is taken up by the little tables and chairs. Only here the guests are shielded from the streets more or less by green ivy walls.

But apart from its beloved café, how does Vienna amuse itself? Chiefly by going to the moving-picture shows, the music halls and the musical comedies, exactly like other capitals, more's the pity. The cinema is the same all the world over, and we need only say that where the "dramas" are controlled, as it is the case in Vienna to-day, the good it does far exceeds the bad. It is the only cheap amusement for the masses, and as the proprietors are obliged to have actual photos of scenery, etc., in every performance, nilly-willy they are educating the people as well as amusing them. Vienna has about 150 "Kinos" as they are called here, and all of them are doing excellent business.

The music halls have now become quite international. What London is seeing this month is sure to be in Vienna by the next, and *vice versa*, so no more need be said about them. An expensive and even more luridly indecent, if a little more literary species of music

halls are the cabarets—though they would be horrified to hear us say so. But the best proof for our assertion is that music hall and cabaret stars are often interchanged: singing or acting now in the former, now in the latter.

The musical comedy has started on its victorious run through the world from Vienna. So it is well worth looking at more closely in this connection.

**The Musical  
Comedy.**

It was born in Paris, that is true. But Offenbach, its creator, had no great successor in France. The man who carried on his work was an Austrian, though he bears a French name, while, queerly enough, the Frenchman was saddled with an "unpronounceable" German one. Suppé (1820-1895) was, indeed, born in Spalato, Dalmatia, and though at first quite under Offenbach's influence his later works show the spirit of Strauss, especially his masterwork "Bocaccio," that graceful and melodious musical comedy which is a favourite to this day and will probably remain so much longer.

The man who created a new kind of "Operetta," not burlesque or parody, but a refined comedy with sweetly sentimental music was Viennese of the Viennese, Johann Strauss the younger, son of the famous waltz composer (1825-1899).

**Johann  
Strauss.**

He is a classic in his art, not only inexhaustible in melodies and effervescent rhythm, but a refined and ingenious instrumentalist also, which is more than can be said of many a modern composer writing for the orchestra or the stage. His plays have made their way round the world, two of them having become such classics as to be performed even at the Vienna Hofoper: "Fledermaus" and "Zigeunerbaron."

Strauss' imitators have been legion, especially in song and dance-loving Austria. Amongst them we may single out

**Millöcker.**

Millöcker (1842-1899), who has written a great many melodies if superficial operettas. One of them, the "Bettelstudent," has survived its author and is likely to have a deservedly long life before it still.

Of the lately successful operetta composers Lehar, the most striking and perhaps the most original, is distinctly influenced by Strauss. His use of popular motifs, his taut composition and his comparative profundity all point towards that master. After his "Merry Widow" he has still had a good many successes, but none so undisputed and certainly none so deserved as that one. Other popular composers of this genre are Oscar Strauss (no relation to the waltz-composers' family), Eissler, Ascher, Fall, and Reinhardt, all melodious and catchy, but not exactly deep in any sense.

**Modern  
Operetta  
Composers.**

Of late the musical comedy has taken possession of almost all the theatres, and it is difficult to say to what this ascendancy is due. Certainly not to the quality of the species, for the majority of the books have mere apologies for plot, ambiguities for dialogue, meaningless jingles for songs, and undress scenes for jokes, while the music as often as not is a mixture of reminiscences, cacophonies and trivialities. Divers reasons are given: That the masses go to the theatres more often than formerly and that they prefer light fare; that the strain in the struggle for life has become severer, so that people are disinclined for brainwork in the evening—they want relaxation merely; that the people have become more musical so that instead of farces they prefer musical comedies; and that the lasciviousness of the modern operetta is what attracts them. However that may be—and probably all those reasons together really account for it—the fact remains, that to-day, when the musical comedy has degenerated into rather a futile thing, a ware manufactured simply for gain by experienced but uninspired tradesmen, the demand has during the last ten years ousted the recited play from three stages in Vienna (the Raimundtheater, which was built to play popular drama and comedy, the Lustspieltheater, which was devoted to farce and comedy, and the

**Dominion of  
the Musical  
Comedy.**

Bürgertheater, which was meant to serve the classics and the modern drama), and created besides the two old operetta stages (the Carl-Theater and Theater an der Wien) a sixth, the Johann Strauss-Theater.

Until a very short time ago, the Vienna theatres all played on the *répertoire* system: that is, there was a change of play every evening, and only when a piece was quite new would it be played two or three times a week. A theatre in Vienna is a solid unity. The building, the manager, the actors and actresses belong together and stick together; except for the summer months, when the theatre is closed and the company sometimes goes on tour; interchanges in this one instance are usual. The advantages of this firmly united repertory theatre are evident, and Mr. William Archer has often pleaded for it in England. It is a sensible system from every point of view; from that of the dramatist, because his work is not played to death in one season, but is carefully performed for years—if it is worthy, for decades; from that of the actors, because they are given unlimited opportunities and are not forced to the degrading and numbing task of repeating the same parts for hundreds of nights running, quite apart from the safety and continuity of their position which is uncomparably better than that of the English actors, who are obliged to find new berths every few weeks or months; and, of course, also from that of the public, which has a far greater choice of plays and sees them much better performed. The only drawback is that large fortunes are not made in a few months—as is sometimes possible on the English system. And that is why, so far from the sensible continental way being introduced in England, the English system of “running” a play has come to Vienna. It was first tried with the “Merry Widow,” with what success is well known all over the world, and since then the musical comedy has adopted the system for good. Luckily the other theatres still hold out, more or less, though one or two which play light comedy have already got into the

The  
Theatre.

dangerous practice of running only two or three pieces for some weeks—a compromise between the two systems.

Vienna has two theatres for grand opera: the Imperial Opera (Hofoperntheater) and the Popular Opera (Volksoper).

The  
Opera.

The former is well known to be unquestionably the best in the world, especially as regards its orchestra. Formerly the staff of singers used to be unique also, but of late the huge American fees are luring the artistes across the water and their stay with us is generally restricted to a few months of the year. At present the Imperial Opera is suffering from the want of an able manager; under Mahler it had its days of glory, his successor, Weingartner, already had trouble with the staff and lost a good many able singers, and now we have a manager who is nothing but a man of business, knows as little of music as of Vienna, and is simply working havoc in the noble institute given into his care by the malinformed authorities of the Court. Vienna is in despair at this state of things, for the Opera was an object of personal love and pride to every child here, and it is only to be hoped that the weight of public opinion will soon bring about a change for the better in the management.

The Volksoper is comparatively new, but it has admirably filled the gap left by the rather expensive Imperial Opera, and is, if not first rate, still an excellent theatre which has often produced remarkable new works refused at the Imperial Opera, like "Quo Vadis?" by Noogès, and "Kuhreigen," by Kienzl, two of the greatest operatic successes of late years.

The Popular  
Opera-house.

Much the same as was said of the Imperial Opera may with justice be applied to the Imperial Theatre (Hofburg-theater). It is still considered the first German stage, and it is still the chief ambition of every German actor and actress some day to become a member of the illustrious company of "*k.k. Hofschauspieler*." But the two last managers, especially

The Imperial  
Theatre.



Photo by

"Kiloph", G.m.b.H., Vienna.

DOORWAY, ST. GEORGSHAUS





Schlechter, the last but one, have had a most unlucky hand, both as regards the plays they accepted, and the actors and actresses they engaged. Altogether an evil star seems to shine over this theatre of late, for it has lost its greatest actors within a short time, some of them being still comparatively young. To-day those classical performances for which the Hofburgtheater has been so famous for long, lack the grand manner of former times, and it is only tradition which keeps the rather mediocre staff up to the mark at all.

In the other Vienna theatres with their different genres there is no lack of excellent actors. The "Deutsches Volkstheater" is the one coming nearest to the Hofburgtheater in its choice of plays; it has a classical evening at least once a week, and for the rest plays modern dramas and society plays.

**Other  
Theatres.**

The "Neue Wiener Bühne" devotes itself to modern plays and comedies exclusively, the "Josefstädter Theater" has made a speciality of spicy French plays and farces, the "Residenztheater" and the "Lustspieltheater" play farces and comedies of all kinds, and the "New People's Theatre," a most promising institution, sees to literary excellence in its productions. Their first season's great success was Galsworthy's "Strife."

As regards outside arrangements in the Vienna theatres, it is worth mentioning that even the smallest and cheapest are far more comfortable than the London ones. There are spacious lobbies and refreshment rooms everywhere, the seats are broad, and there are plenty of cloak-rooms; in fact, it is forbidden to take overcoats or cloaks into the theatre. The seats are numbered throughout and prices are much more various, but there is no "pit" in the English sense; the seats there are comparatively dear.

Quite another kind of relaxation has, however, become lately the fashion in Vienna and is luring people away from the doubtful pleasures of music hall and cabaret; it is winter sport.

The Viennese have always known how to appreciate their lovely surroundings, and mountaineering has been a passion with them for a long time. But in winter the only sport indulged in was skating, and indeed, every board-school child in Vienna is a proficient skater, the winter being hard and long and the opportunities for skating excellent. Now that all things Scandinavian have become the rage, however, mountaineering in winter and ski-ing have come in too, and a blessing they prove. The trains going out to the Semmering and other country places on a Sunday morning at six are packed with joyfully expectant young people, mostly armed with ski and knapsack, sure of a day's healthy pleasure in the clear frosty mountain air, instead of frousting in the stuffy, smoky, coffee-houses and theatres for hours. No other metropolis in the world offers the opportunity of climbing 6,000 feet without even going away for the week-end—twelve or fourteen hours are all that is required, so that shop-girls and men and poor students can afford it as well as the children of the rich.

And if all is not as it should be in Vienna city at present, let us hope that the new generation growing up under the influence of snow and mountain air, slim and clean-limbed, clear-skinned and clear-sighted, with healthy pleasures and clean enjoyments, will some day mend what has been marred by fat and red-nosed Philistines, drinking beer in the tobacco-laden air of restaurants for their chief amusement.

**HUNGARY**



## P R E F A C E

PERSONS with an ambition in the direction of authorship sometimes come to Hungary on a holiday visit of *a few weeks'* duration and go home to write a 400 page volume purporting to be a reliable account of this country, its people, and all that pertains to it. I have lived here for *six years*, during which period I have had abundant opportunity for travel and observation. I have frequently enjoyed the hospitality of high, middle-class, and low—in palace, mansion, and cottage—yet feel diffident to take upon myself the task so lightly taken by these tourists, feeling, as I do, how very much there is to be learnt about the Magyars and their Fatherland. Like a sparkling jewel, emitting rays of different hues as it is turned from one point of light to another, this country demands still more years of my life ere I can feel competent to render a just and accurate estimate of the Hungarians. And as, on nearing the top of a hill, new vistas open out before us, and we behold more than we at first expected to see, so the more we discover of Hungary and the Hungarians, the more we realise how little we really know about it and them.

Some foreigners have sought to obtain the good-will of the Hungarians by flattering eulogies of them and their land. I prefer to regard the Hungarians as a people too magnanimous to be influenced by such doubtful means ; too great to be offended by honest criticism ; and too intelligent to resent the telling of a truth when sometimes it happens to be disagreeable. A book such as this can have no value in the eyes of a discriminating reader, and therefore can be of no value on the subject of which it treats, unless it bears the stamp of the author's sincerity, and, while giving prominence to the people's virtues, does not lose sight of their foibles. No country is perfect—not even my own beloved England ; so

to pretend would be a sign not of intelligence but of stupidity—why, then, should it be supposed that the aspiring Magyar race do not wish to see themselves as others see them ?

I have endeavoured to approach the task set me in an humble spirit, conscious of the difficulties of the undertaking as well as of my own deficiencies. I trust, however, that no one—in Hungary or out of it—will doubt the honesty of my intention to present a faithful portrait of the Hungarian in his homeland, or the earnestness with which I have tried to arrive at *the truth* about matters not under my immediate cognisance.

A number of distinguished Hungarian friends have kindly assisted me with data, with the loan of interesting historical documents, and otherwise. These I thank most cordially, regretting my inability for obvious reasons to name them here.

In dealing with the politics of the country I have tried to be fair to all parties, believing them each and all to be actuated by a desire to promote their country's welfare ; but if any bias be discovered in what I have written thereon, or on any other matter, I alone am responsible for it, and do not desire that any of my good Hungarian friends should share that responsibility. With this declaration I commit this little work to the indulgence of the English reading public.

A. L. DELISLE.

HUNGARY.

15th August, 1913.

# HUNGARY

## CHAPTER I

### ORIGINS OF THE MAGYARS

ANCIENT Pannonia and Dacia, corresponding to present-day Hungary, including Transylvania, are thought to have been originally peopled by the Cimmerians of the **Origina.** Greek and Latin fables, who lived a life of barbaric independence. Their dark valleys, on which the sun seldom shone, supplied the early poets, from Orpheus to Homer, with their most marvellous and captivating fictions. The soil was so fertile as to yield all that was necessary to human existence without labour ; thus the people are said to have passed their time in idleness and sleep. Every article was valued in proportion to its power to contribute to their ease. Ovid writes of the land as the abode of the god of sleep.<sup>1</sup>

Such a race could not long maintain themselves in so desirable a region. About 640 B.C. a Scythian tribe, driven from their homes in the Caucasus by the Massagetæ, fled westward and entered the land of the Cimmerians. At first fugitives, they soon became conquerors, expelling the aborigines and occupying their rich valleys.

These Scythians were probably not of that royal race whose exploits fill so large a place in ancient history, but rather the conquered subjects of that higher family : and it is supposable that their expulsion was the result of an insurrection.

On taking possession of their conquest, they remained a

<sup>1</sup> *Odyssey, Lib. XI.*



long time the barbarians they had been before. They had no towns nor fortified places: they resided not in houses, but in covered wagons drawn by oxen. They were particularly fond of horses, which ranged in immense herds, ready for the demands of war. Bordering, however, on the territories of ancient Thrace, which, according to Orpheus, was civilised, they subsequently borrowed from that country many of the arts of social life, and finally settled down to cultivate and enjoy the exuberant fertility of the land of their adoption. Herodotus says that the Scythians were opposed to the introduction of foreign customs. He divides them into two classes—those who ploughed and those who did not.<sup>1</sup>

About the middle of the first century after Christ, the Scythians were conquered by the Sarmatians, who, according to Herodotus, were the natural descendants of the Amazons. In the geographical works of Ptolemy these Sarmatians are called *Metanastæ*, or wanderers; by the Roman writers they are generally styled *Jaryges*, of whom there were three distinct families: (1) the *Maotæ*, who retained their native seat, north of what is now the sea of Azof, the Cossack country; (2) the *Basilii*, who occupied the greater part of European Sarmatia, of which the present Russian Empire is principally composed, and (3) the third, whose name has not come down to us, who poured down into the plains and valleys of their Scythian neighbours and subdued them.

The territory these last acquired extended no further westward than the river Tisza (the *Tibiscus* of the Romans), beyond which was Pannonia, inhabited by a Celtic tribe. Scythia was first styled Dacia by Ptolemy, to distinguish it from Asiatic Scythia, with which it was connected on the East. Pannonia at this period was a Roman province, having been subdued by Tiberius in the reign of Cæsar Augustus. The Sarmatians, flushed with their recent victories, pushed towards the Roman camps, but were repulsed

<sup>1</sup> *Lid. IV, c. 78.*

with great slaughter. They made also several hostile incursions into the provinces lying south of the Danube, where they were again met by the Roman legion and driven home. Though beaten by the superior discipline of the Imperial soldiers, they were by no means discouraged and continued their depredations till the days of Trajan. They compelled Domitian, the persecutor of the Christians, to pay them an annual tribute to keep quiet.

Trajan, whose military abilities have been immortalised by Pliny, could not brook such an insult to the throne when he came to occupy it. In a five years' war he employed all the resources at his command in carrying out his great design of making a final subjugation of the fierce Dacians, *i.e.*, the Sarmatians inhabiting the land of Dacia. He threw an immense bridge over the Danube and marched an invincible army against Decebalus, their king. A terrible battle ensued, in which so many wounds were inflicted on the Romans that there was not linen enough in the camp to bind them up. Decebalus, however, at last yielded. His chief stronghold and palace was destroyed, his army cut to pieces, and he—glad to save himself and his subjects from utter annihilation—consented to resign the royal dignity: whereupon Dacia, at the beginning of the second century, was made a Roman province.

During the century and half that followed, the Roman Emperors spent large sums of money on their new possession, in order to make it a safe bulwark against other barbarians to the north and east. Towers and cities were built and colonies founded. Roads were made and bridges erected in so substantial a manner that the remains of them may be seen in Hungary at the present day.

At the middle of the third century arose a new race of barbarians, who cast lustful eyes on this naturally beautiful country which Roman civilisation had carried to a still higher pitch of splendour. These were the Goths, who inhabited the vast plains of the Vistula and the shores of the Baltic. Leaving their

**The Coming  
of the Goths.**

cold and bleak fatherland, they fixed their temporary habitations on the northern slopes of the Carpathians. Not venturing to attack the Roman garrisons, they poured down upon the less protected regions of Thrace and Macedonia : but sweeping backward they entered Dacia with resistless daring, drove the Roman legions from their positions at *Ulpia Trajana*, the provincial capital, and held the country against all opposition. The Emperor Aurelian concluded a treaty with them, relinquishing to them the whole of Dacia, but demolishing the famous bridge erected by his predecessor that the barbarians might be the more easily confined to their acknowledged limits.

The reign of the Goths was of brief duration. After a century and a quarter on the soil of Dacia, enervated by the easy blessings they enjoyed, they became a prey to another nation of barbarians from the snowy steppes of Sogdiana, between the Ural and the Caspian. These—having conquered the Alani in their course, and thus swelled their numbers—rushed through the defiles of the Carpathians. The Gothic population, taken by surprise, was put to flight, and the victors took possession of their homes. These were the Huns under their famous leader, Attila : and thus was settled the name of Hungary as a geographical expression.

Towards the close of the ninth century, when the Huns had held undisputed possession of their conquest for more than five hundred years, their kindred of  
**The Huns.** the Caspian, who, during their residence in their new country had taken the name of Magyars, came and settled on the confines of Dacia and Pannonia. They came in reality to the country of their brethren, but knew it not. During the five centuries the Huns had undergone many misfortunes which had broken their power and spirit, so that they were scarcely to be recognised as the conquerors of the Goths. The want of genius in the Huns, after the death of the great Attila was the principal cause of their disasters. With their sharp swords they had

carved out an empire, but with their swords they could not make just laws, nor raise up a civilisation by which their power could be consolidated. Hence their decay was almost as rapid as their success.

When the Magyars came, they found a mixed race of people made up of unknown tribes who came out to dispute the advance of the invading hosts. The contest was of short duration. After the first few battles, in which the name of Magyar had been rendered synonymous with every martial virtue, the fighting practically ceased. The Huns, Goths, Sarmatians, and the unknown population, now all massed together under the collective appellation of Slavs, fled in wild disorder. Some escaped into Italy, others into Germany and France. The greater part, however, fled to the surrounding hills, while the invaders settled in the fertile plains.

But the Magyars were not yet content. Leaving a sufficient number to guard their new home, they despatched large bodies to north, west and south, to complete their circle of victories. Everywhere their efforts were crowned with the most remarkable success. With a daring never surpassed and seldom equalled, they penetrated to the most densely populated regions, crossed the confines of Germany, into Italy and France, their progress being stayed only at the base of some absolutely impassable mountain range or on the shore of some unknown sea. Thus, with their centre on the fertile plains of Hungary they overran all Northern and Southern Europe from the Adriatic to the Baltic in an incredibly short time.

A thousand years have rolled away since the Magyars crossed the Carpathians into the land then called Pannonia. At Pusztaszer, on the banks of the Tisza, may still be seen a hill, beneath which thousands of skulls lie buried. From the summit of this hill it was that the Magyars proclaimed themselves a nation, with Arpád as their prince; and the skulls are the remains of the unhappy Huns, Avars, and

others, who fell in the futile struggle to stem the tide of invasion.

There are several theories as to the origin of the Magyars—the Hungarians of to-day. I shall, however, give only that of Professor Arminius Vámbéry, since his seems to me to be the least open to criticism and therefore most probably the correct one.

According, then, to the learned Orientalist, the Magyars are of Turko-Tartar origin, mixed with the Finn-Ugrian branch of the Ural-Altai family, descendants of the Huns, with whom they came in contact, as we have already seen.

The other theories, though differing, all point to one undisputed fact: that the Magyars originally came from Central Asia. The Hungarian language is itself a living witness of this, abounding as it does in words that have no affinity whatever with the languages of Europe, while strongly resembling their equivalents in various oriental tongues.

There is an interesting legend, well known in Hungary, according to which Nimrod, after the confusion of tongues at the Tower of Babel, migrated to the land of Havila, where his wife bore him two sons, Hunyor and Magyar. As these, grown up to young manhood, were one day hunting in the Caucasus, in pursuit of a stag, they were led into a delightful country, a veritable land overflowing with milk and honey. Returning to their father with their report, they obtained his consent to their settling with their flocks in this delightful land; and in course of time married the beautiful daughters of Dula, Prince of the Olans. From these unions sprang the kindred races of Huns and Magyars, which both grew into mighty nations.

Finding the territory they occupied too small to contain them, they made a reconnaissance of the surrounding countries, drove out the inhabitants and took possession. The tribe of Hunyor occupied the region north of the Volga, while the tribe of Magyar settled on the left bank of the river Don.

Twenty-two generations later came an exodus of the Huns,

the Magyars continuing to dwell peacefully on the spot they had made their home.

The exploits of the Huns under Attila, the "Scourge of God," need not be recounted here. Suffice it to say that though they carried their victorious army over a great part of Europe, their empire was destined to be of but brief duration.

After Attila's death, his two sons, Aladár and Csaba, had recourse to arms to decide the question of succession. Aladár perished, and Csaba with difficulty escaped the destroying fury of the neighbouring nations. With a handful of followers he reached the land of the Hellenes. There some of his little band, deserting their leader, went to Transylvania, so called as it was then a region of primeval, trackless forest. Csaba, whose mother had been a Grecian princess, was welcomed by the Emperor Marcianus, at whose court he remained for some years until he returned to his ancestral home by the Don. To the day of his death he urged upon his people the duty of invading Pannonia and reconquering the empire won by his father, Attila.

Several centuries later a woman who dwelt in the Ural region bore a son, of whom it was prophesied that he should fulfil the living and dying wish of Prince Csaba and reconquer Eastern Europe. The child was named Almos (dreamy), and at the early age of twelve years he was placed at the head of the massed tribes, whom he led on an offensive expedition. They crossed the Don and the Volga, entered Pannonia (territory nearly identical with present-day Hungary) and, overcoming the inhabitants after fierce fighting, occupied it.

Years elapsed, Almos married and had a son, Arpád, the constitutional chief of Hungary and founder of a princely dynasty bearing his name.

During Arpád's reign, war being waged against a tribe inhabiting the forests and mountain fastnesses of Transylvania, the Hungarians made the joyful discovery that they and their enemies were blood-relations. Peace was accordingly restored amid great rejoicing on both sides, and

a solemn alliance of friendship was concluded between them.<sup>1</sup>

The Greek Emperor, Leo the Wise, has left to posterity a graphic sketch of the Hungarians at this period. He says,

" They are from their childhood horsemen.

Leo  
the Wise.

They do not like to walk. On their shoulder they carry long lances and spears—in their hands the bow: they use these weapons very skilfully. Their breasts and the breasts of their horses are protected by shields of iron or hides. Accustomed to fight with the arrow and the bow, they do not willingly come to close quarters, but prefer to do battle from a distance. They attend carefully to everything that concerns them, but keep their intentions secret. They place numerous watches round their camp, on which account it is difficult to surprise them. In battle they divide their armies into small companies, each containing about a thousand men, to which they give positions not far distant from each other. They have also a reserve corps, with which, if not brought into action, they lay snares for the enemy, or give needful succour to yielding or thinned battalions. Their baggage they leave a mile or two in the rear of the army under the protection of a detachment. Their principal care is not to extend their lines too much: their single battalions are consequently deep, their front straight and dense. Their snares are laid by spreading their wings, thus encircling the enemy, or by feigned retreats and quick returns. If the enemy flee, they pursue as long as their horses can keep up the pursuit, or until they have annihilated him. If the flying enemy retreat into a fortress they endeavour to prevent succour being sent him, and thus compel him eventually to surrender."<sup>2</sup>

When not at war the Hungarians spent their time fishing and hunting and pasturing their cattle. With agriculture they, at this time, had no acquaintance, and knew only

<sup>1</sup> *Magyarország és Népe*, Felbermann.

<sup>2</sup> *Tact. cap. ii, Leo Sap.*

sufficient of the mechanical art to make their weapons and their clothing.<sup>1</sup>

Árpád, it may be observed, was the Joshua of the Magyars. He it was who led them forth into the Pannonian Canaan. Here, however, they were by no means content to rest on their laurels. Nearly the whole period of the reign of the Árpád dynasty is characterised by warlike incursions into neighbouring countries. Penetrating even to the Atlantic seaboard, the Magyars terrorised Western Europe until their power was broken by the Emperor Otto in 955 A.D. in the valley of the Lech.

This overwhelming defeat of the Magyars was a blessing in disguise, in that it woke them to a consciousness of the advantages of the civilisation of the West. Then, too, the Christian religion obtained a footing among them, Géza, the last of their rulers to bear the title of prince, allowing his son Vajk to receive baptism and the Christian name of Stephen. This boy in due time became the first king and the first Christian monarch of Hungary.

<sup>1</sup> *Geschichte der Ungarn*, Horváth.



## CHAPTER II

### CHRISTIAN HUNGARY

STEPHEN was crowned in 1001 A.D. with a crown specially presented for the occasion by Pope Silvester II, the Roman Pontiff at the same time conferring upon his protégé the title of Apostolic King (*Rex Apostolicus*). This crown (called "The Holy Crown of Hungary"), plays, even to-day, an important rôle in the coronation ceremony. By law every Hungarian sovereign is bound to be crowned with it within six months of his accession to the throne. According to legend, this crown was originally intended for Boleslav of Poland, but Pope Silvester was visited by an angel who directed him to send it instead to Stephen of Hungary. To prove his gratitude for this signal mark of pontifical favour, King Stephen became very zealous in building churches and monasteries, and organising the Government of his realm according to the model of the Christian states around him. He married Gisela, a Bavarian princess, who added her enthusiasm to that of her husband in the labour of Christianising and enlightening the nation.

In 1083 Stephen was canonised for his zeal for the Church by Pope Gregory the Seventh (Hildebrand). This year marks the beginning of a period of severe trial for Hungary, The German Emperors, particularly Henry III, attempted to reduce the land to the status of a fief. Their repeated efforts, however, proved vain, and in 1055 they were forced to conclude peace.

When the royal power had become consolidated, after the days of St. Ladislas, who continued the good work of St. Stephen, the country gained in territory by the addition of Croatia, Dalmatia and Bosnia. Ladislas, though an ardent son of the Church, defended his dominions against Papal



*Photographed for this work by*

*Mr. N. indor Szabó.*

**STATUE OF THE SAINT-KING STEPHEN, BUDAPEST**

# 70 7100 ABSTRACTS

intrigue. He is also remembered for having inaugurated many useful laws.

Dying in 1114 he was succeeded by Stephen II, who lost the greater part of Dalmatia in the war with the Venetians. The greatest disorder prevailed for several decades, and the country was practically reduced to a vassal state of the Byzantine Empire.

In 1173, in the reign of King Béla IV, it regained its independence, only to fall again in 1241 when the devastating

**Tartar  
Invaders.**

Tartar hordes of Khan Batu, numbering a million and a half, annihilated the Hungarians in the battle of Moh, destroying the churches, monasteries, villages and towns, and laying waste entire districts. At this time the Hungarian leaders were engaged in strife with each other, and the King was left destitute of fighting men. Being informed of the approach of this terrible enemy, he summoned his nobles, despatched envoys to various neighbouring monarchs for assistance, and charged the small force at his disposal with the duty of defending the frontier. But, alas! the envoys returned without a single promise of assistance. The King, in despair, implored his magnates to cease their private quarrels and rally round him to save the country. Now Hederváry, the palatine, appeared before the sovereign and said, "Sire, we are lost. The Tartars have broken up our forces, and will soon be upon us." On hearing this the assembly was seized with consternation: the King, however, retained his calmness and calling Michael Vanisa delivered to him the crown of St. Stephen, solemnly charging him to take it and the national treasures safely out of the country. Then, drawing his sword, the intrepid monarch cried: "The fate of our nation is in the hands of the Almighty, but its honour is in mine. Let those who will die gloriously for their country, follow me; let those who will live in disgrace, remain."

In a moment the wavering courage of thousands was renewed, and a mighty shout rent the air: "We will follow

wherever you may lead us. *Eljen a Kirdly! Eljen a haza!*" But all in vain, the little force of 6,000 Hungarians was opposed by more than 1,000,000 Tartars. Magyar bravery could avail nothing against such enormous odds, and the sun set on that eventful day over a scene of blood and ruin. The Tartars overran Hungary, Servia, and Bulgaria until they could find nothing more to destroy or kill: then Khan Batu ordered his troops back to Asia.

A generation later the nation had shaken off the effects of this terrible disaster, and Ladislas IV, in 1278, could even help Rudolf of Habsburg, at the battle of Marchfeld, to save Austria from the threatened invasion of Ottocar, King of Bohemia.

With the death of Ladislas' successor, Andrew III, in 1301, the House of Arpád became extinct, and the right of electing another King reverted to the nation. There were many claimants and candidates for the throne, besides which the country was split up into factions. One party accepted Charles Robert of Anjou and made him King; another elected Wenceslas, son of the King of Bohemia; while a third crowned Otto of Bavaria. Each of these princes ruled in turn, until in their quarrels the crown of St. Stephen fell into the hands of Ladislas Apor, Voivode of Transylvania.

With a view to recovering the lost emblem of sovereignty Otto offered to marry the Voivode's daughter; and he was invited to the Transylvanian Court for that purpose, but he got neither the princess nor the crown; Apor consigned the luckless Otto to one of his deepest dungeons instead.

When Charles Robert of Anjou was, in 1309, crowned for the fourth time King of Hungary, he had many difficulties to contend with in restoring internal peace and bringing the recalcitrant nobles to reason. He developed the mining industries of the country and raised the commerce to a condition of prosperity never before known. He introduced Italian pomp and splendour into his palace at Székesfehérvár and his

House of  
Anjou.

castle at Visegrád, making his Court the first in Europe, copied by his brother sovereigns. At Visegrád the destinies of nations were often decided: and Charles Robert was at once King of Hungary, Naples and Poland, though the two latter titles were little more than nominal.

During the reign of his son, Louis the Great, Hungarian dominion extended from the Black Sea to the Baltic, and the brilliant campaigns in Naples paved the way for the "golden age" of chivalry in Hungary. His Court, like that of his father, was the centre of European culture and elegance. He encouraged the arts and industries and improved the general condition of the country. Leaving no male issue, his daughter Mary's husband, Sigismund, grandson of the Emperor of Germany, became King of Hungary in 1395.

Sigismund proved but an indifferent ruler. He was soon called upon to face the Turkish hosts under Sultan Bajazet. At the first encounter the Turks were defeated, but as the Hungarian forces were but 10,000 against 200,000 they were finally borne down by overwhelming numbers. This was the beginning of a long war.

Belgrade having been ceded by treaty to Hungary, a soldier named John Hunyady was sent there as governor of the fortress. This was the rising of a new star in the historical firmament. Concerning his origin, tradition has it that Sigismund, who, besides being King of Hungary, was Emperor of Germany and Rome, had an amatory adventure with a beautiful Wallachian girl, Elizabeth Marsinai. Maintaining his *incognito*, he gave her a ring and left her, with the parting assurance that if, when her child was born, she should take the ring to the King in Buda both she and the infant would be treated with kindness. Some years afterwards the woman with her little son, accompanied by her brother, set out on foot to the distant capital. During the journey the mother, overcome with fatigue, fell asleep under the shade of a tree. The child, in the meantime, toyed with the ring, which hung by

a slender cord from his neck. Finally, a mischievous jackdaw swooped down upon the ring and flew off with it. The screams of the infant woke the woman, who was seized with despair at seeing herself deprived of her passport to royal favour. But Elizabeth's brother soon brought the bird down by a clever shot from his bow. Thus to their great delight the ring was recovered, and the King's joy when he heard the story was unfeigned. He acknowledged the boy as his son, bestowed on him the name of *Hunyady*,<sup>1</sup> and presented him with the town of Hunyad and sixty villages besides. The surname *Corvinus*<sup>2</sup> and the armorial bearings of a crow and a ring were later assumed to commemorate the event recorded. Elizabeth's birthplace, the village of Szonakos, was by royal decree exempted from taxes in perpetuity.

The child John was destined to be a great hero. At the battle of Nicapolis he destroyed the whole Turkish force of 80,000 men. Later he drove out Sultan Murad, and subsequently, with an army of 24,000 men only, defeated him in his attack upon Belgrade with 130,000 men.

The King dying at this time, was succeeded by his nephew Albert, in 1437, who reigned but for two short years. His widow had consented to re-marry with Ladislas, King of Poland; but giving birth to a posthumous son, she revoked her promise. Ladislas thereupon declared war against her, and the Queen took her child and her crown and placed both in the care of the German Emperor.

Subsequently she sold the crown and certain territory to the German Emperor, and with the proceeds hired Bohemian brigands against Ladislas. These wretches plundered the country and committed innumerable excesses. As for the German Emperor, he kept the crown and the rightful heir thereto into the bargain.

<sup>1</sup> Of Hunyad.

<sup>2</sup> Jackdaw or crow.

Meantime the Turks invaded Transylvania and Hunyady marched against them, inflicting upon them, after a fearful struggle, a crushing defeat. Sultan Murad II, enraged at the loss of his Vizier, Mezet Bey, in this battle, swore revenge and despatched Abdin Shah with 80,000 reinforcements. Hunyady was prepared. With their respective battle cries of "*Jesus!*" and "*Allah-il-Allah!*" the Christian and the Moslem foemen met in a terrible melée. A hand-to-hand struggle soon ensued, in which the Hungarians proved victorious and put the Turks to flight. The Sultan himself then came on the scene with an enormous army, but was put to rout by Hunyady with only 12,000 horsemen. The victor then pushed on and captured Nisch and Sofia.

Struggle with  
the Turks.

Murad took alarm. Assembling every available man and forming an alliance with Ladislas, King of Poland, the combined forces attacked the Hungarians, the battle raging throughout a day and a night. This encounter resulted in a further defeat for the Turks, Hussein Bey, the Commander-in-Chief, being taken prisoner. Hunyady returned to Buda with thirteen captive Pashas and more than fifty Turkish standards as trophies of victory; while the Turks fled back to their own country.

Hunyady's fame spread over the civilised world, and martially disposed mothers—of which in those stirring times there were many—taught their infants to lisp the name of the great hero.

As this is not a history of Hungary but merely an historical survey, many events of the reign of King Ladislas, who succeeded Sigismund, must be passed over.

The war with the Turks was renewed, at the instigation of Pope Eugenius IV, though a truce for ten years had been declared. The result of this breach of faith was the crushing defeat of the Hungarians at the battle of Varna (10th November, 1444), in which both the King of Hungary and the Papal Legate were slain.



John Hunyady escaped, and returning home was appointed Regent of the kingdom during the minority of Ladislas V.

A further period of sanguinary warfare, lasting for more than eight years, in which the tide of victory alternated between the Magyars and the Moslems—the latter always managing to retain their hold on the country—culminated in the decisive defeat of the Hungarians at Mohács on 19th August, 1526, when King Louis II (St. Louis) and the flower of the Hungarian chivalry perished.

We must not omit, however, to tell briefly the story of the preceding King Matthias, son of the renowned John Hunyady.

After the death of King Ladislas in 1458, Matthias ascended the throne, which he worthily filled for thirty-two years. In all

**King  
Matthias.**

respects a child of the Renaissance, he was a lover of books and an admirer of scholars. He founded the most famous library of his day in Buda and surrounded himself with the most learned men Europe could produce. As warrior, he kept the Bohemians in check, put a stop to the Turkish conquests for the time being, restored order in Croatia, overcame Austria, and took possession of Vienna, and promptly suppressed a self-styled "King" of Transylvania, whom he, however, made Voivode; while as a statesman, too, he restrained the turbulent nobles, and, in the making of laws, was guided by wise moderation and love of justice.

There was one grave flaw in his otherwise faultless statesmanship, however, as though to exemplify the axiom that no man is perfect. Matthias reigned for five years without being crowned, the reason for this being that the German Emperor, Frederick, had the crown of St. Stephen in his possession and refused to give it up. King Matthias—unfortunately for Hungary, as later history proved—induced him to part with the crown for a large sum of money, certain forts, and an agreement that he—the German Emperor—or his successor should appoint the next King of Hungary, in the event of the family of Matthias becoming extinct.



*Photo by*

*Pietzner.*

THE ARCHDUKE FRANZ FERDINAND OF AUSTRIA

THE  
UNIVERSITY  
OF ALABAMA

Matthias paid great attention to the welfare of his people. He established the first printing press in Hungary, built many schools, and founded the first University. He gave equal rights to everybody, even appointing a member of the despised Jewish race to be minister of the Royal household. No wonder, then, that he was almost worshipped by his subjects, and when he passed away they sincerely mourned the loss of a friend and benefactor. "Matthias is dead and justice has died with him," they said, and this saying is sometimes heard from the lips of Magyars to-day.

The fatal consequences of King Matthias's agreement with the German Emperor began to be seen after the disaster of Mohács. From this period Hungary came under the sway of the House of Austria.<sup>1</sup> The nation fretted for a national king, such as the glorious Matthias had been. Accordingly John Szápolya, a wealthy Hungarian magnate, was elected to the throne by a powerful party, while another party, also powerful, gathered round the Habsburg prince, Ferdinand II, husband of the daughter of Ladislas. Although the latter's appointment was influenced to a great extent by the personal interests of certain individuals, as well as by the agreement of King Matthias referred to, the decisive point was the conviction, perfectly justifiable, that the country would derive far more advantage from the rule of a monarch who could bring the wealth and military power of his own dominions to the aid of Hungary. Unfortunately, however, the high hopes entertained were not realised.

Owing to the lack of unity of purpose among the people, Hungary soon found herself divided into three parts. In the west the House of Habsburg, represented by Ferdinand, was in possession; and the east a national principality with Transylvania as its centre; between these two the Turk with his capital at Buda.

The bleeding divisions of the country were for a century and a half the scene of continual warfare and devastation.

<sup>1</sup> At that period also Emperors of Germany.

At intervals large armies advanced from Germany and the Austrian provinces against the Turks ; but beyond robbing the unfortunate country they did practically nothing. Even at the time when Nicholas Zrinyi with a few thousand men held an ordinary earthwork and died a patriot's death, an enormous army was lying inactive at Győr under the command of the Emperor-King Maximilian, which might with ease have taken the field against the Turkish forces.<sup>1</sup>

When Ferdinand I was elected King of Hungary he was lord of Bohemia and the Austrian provinces only, but after the death of Charles V he obtained also the crown of the Holy Roman Empire, and his successors, without exception, were chosen to be rulers of the German Empire. This had an effect on the relations between the monarchs and Hungary. Even had this country maintained its ancient territory and power unimpaired, it would, to a certain extent, have been thrown into the background by the policy of a dynasty which at the same time sat on the throne of a mighty empire surrounded with the almost saintly halo of traditions. Still less was the importance attached to that little tract of land, all that remained of the Hungarian kingdom in the hands of the Habsburgs. Thus we cannot be surprised that the Habsburgs looked upon their Hungarian possession as nothing more or less than a glacis acting as an impediment to the onslaught of the Turks ; and it was their constant endeavour to incorporate it in their empire. But it was quite as natural that the Hungarian nation, jealous of its liberties, clung obstinately to its ancient constitution, a fact that led to bloody conflicts between the nation and the ruling dynasty. The antagonism was accentuated by the fact that the monarchs, as patrons of the Catholic faith, used every violence to eradicate the Protestant religion that had so firm a hold on the country ; and national resistance was rendered still more passionate and fierce by the grievances of the persecuted Protestants.

<sup>1</sup> Julius de Vargha : *Hungary—a sketch, etc.*

In the struggle that ensued, an important part was played by Transylvania, which had developed into an independent principality. Her distinguished princes, **Transylvania.** Bocskay, Bethlen, and George Rákóczi I on more than one occasion gave assistance to the Hungarians. By the Peace of Vienna, as well as by those of Nicolsburg and Linz, they secured liberty of conscience and the maintenance of the Hungarian constitution unimpaired, without, however, an unbroken continuity of peace and quiet. Out of gratitude to the reigning dynasty, by whose aid they had succeeded in throwing off the Turkish yoke, the Hungarians agreed to the annulment of the final clause of the Golden Bull (*Bulla Aurea*) of Andrew III which had sanctioned the use of armed forces against the Kings who had defied the constitution. They even resigned their right of electing a king, and recognised the right of succession of the male line of the Habsburg House. But all this was of no avail. Leopold I treated Hungary as a province conquered by force of arms.

Although the national resistance had no longer a pillar of support in Transylvania (which had in the meantime also come under the rule of Leopold), harassed to death, it took up arms, and under the leadership of Prince Francis Rákóczi II at the opening of the eighteenth century, carried on a bloody struggle for nearly eight years against the oppressor. The struggle was concluded, not by defeat, but by the honourable Peace of Szatmár, in 1711, which secured the immunity of the Hungarian constitution.<sup>1</sup>

In 1723 King Charles III summoned a Parliament at Pozsony for the ratification of the Pragmatic Sanction, which secured the Habsburg succession to the female line as well as to

the male.

No sooner had Charles III expired, in 1741, than his daughter Maria Theresa, who succeeded to the throne by virtue of the

<sup>1</sup> Julius de Vargha : *Hungary—a sketch, etc.*

Pragmatic Sanction, found all Europe in arms against her. The Prussian, Bavarian, French, Saxon, Spanish, and Neapolitan Kings all claimed her inheritance. In despair, she appeared in the Parliament at Pozsony with her two-months old baby, Joseph, on her arm and implored, with tears, "her faithful Hungarians" to protect her throne and person.

We can hear, in imagination, the roar that ascended from those hundreds of loyal Magyar throats as sabres leapt from their scabbards and flashed on high as their bearers swore "*Vitam et sanguinem moriamur pro rege nostro Maria Teresia!*" ("Our lives and our blood, to the death for our Queen Maria Theresa!").<sup>1</sup>

Not only did they hasten to take up arms, but they voted supplies to aid their young queen, who was thus enabled soon to obtain a brilliant victory over all her enemies.

Joseph II (1780-90), Maria Theresa's son, was an enlightened monarch, far in advance of his time. He was never crowned, objecting to the restrictions imposed by the coronation oath. His great reforms—the decree of toleration, the census, and the use of the German language in instruction and administration—were received by the Hungarians with extreme indignation. The magnates rose against him, because he desired to abolish the unjust institution of serfdom and oblige them, the magnates, to pay taxes, from which they had from time immemorial been exempt. He increased the number of schools and gave education to the peasantry, as well as encouraged backward industries and agriculture.

Conscious of the purity of his intentions, he died broken-hearted at the conduct of his Magyar subjects. These regarded their Sovereign's acts as illegal, since he never consulted Parliament. Shortly before his death he confessed

<sup>1</sup> I have translated *rege* as "queen" as the sense requires; but as Latin scholars know, the word actually signifies "king." The fact is, the Sovereign of Hungary is in law always a king, the sex notwithstanding. Thus, instead of a *queen* of Hungary it would be more correct to speak of a *female king*. The reference is, of course, to a reigning sovereign lady (*hirdlynő*), and not to a king's wife (*hirdlyné*).

his failure and sent back the crown of St. Stephen (at that time in Vienna) to Buda.

Joseph's successor, Leopold (1790-92), made concessions to the Magyars, and carried on the war with Turkey, which was the hope of the enslaved Servians. At his decease, the new French Republic declared war on his successor: and it is well known that Napoleon endeavoured by specious promises to seduce the Hungarians from their allegiance to the House of Habsburg. They remained true, but got nothing for their faithfulness. Their country was drained of its manhood to supply soldiers and its exchequer was exhausted. When, after many vicissitudes, Francis was once more firmly seated on the throne, he refused to convoke the Hungarian Diet until forced to do so by his failure to levy taxes (1821-25). The selfishness of the aristocracy was now, as ever, the great barrier to national progress; but, nevertheless, this was a period of great revival. A National Academy and Theatre were founded, and many works of public benefit begun; while in 1833 the Diet passed enactments ameliorating the condition of the peasantry, and in 1848 the Hungarian lower nobility—the backbone of the country—relinquished their class privileges and placed themselves in the van of progress.

The whole of Europe was now seething with the ideas of individual liberty and national independence; the Magyars were carried away on the wave of revolution, and never afterwards, despite temporary checks, abandoned their programme of national development and complete political independence.<sup>1</sup>

It is hoped that this brief outline of the past history of Hungary will enable the reader better to understand the conditions prevailing in the country at the present day.

<sup>1</sup> Colquhoun: *Whirlpool of Europe*.



## CHAPTER III

### THE HABSBURG DYNASTY

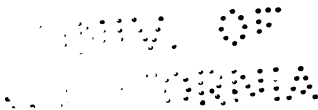
To whatever may be ascribed the cause, every Hungarian is convinced that his country has suffered nothing but ill, in a greater or lesser degree, since the first scion of the House of Habsburg sat on the throne of the Magyars by virtue of the short-sighted agreement made by King Matthias with the astute Emperor Frederick. Far be it from me to desire to convey the impression that the Habsburgs have been all evil, or worse rulers in general than those of other dynasties that have wielded the sceptre of St. Stephen. By no means; there have, indeed, been excellent princes among them. But the ruling spirit of that Imperial House is a prodigious vanity and vaulting ambition, disposed to trample under foot all popular rights and rule as by "Right Divine" every nation and people it can by any means bring under its sway. Count Julius Andrassy says: "The Habsburgs, moreover, had earned for themselves a sinister reputation in Hungary. Their conviction that the country belonged to them by right of inheritance had caused long years of conflict. They were a source of constant anxiety to the Hungarians, who clung to the free election of their King as the very foundation of their liberties. The unhappy reign of Ladislas V, the unlawful execution of Ladislas Hunyady, and the cunning policy of the Emperor Frederick against King Matthias, had all increased the unpopularity of Hungary's formidable neighbour. These various memories had been crystallised into popular sayings, which passed from mouth to mouth until they were on the lips of the whole people. Amongst the gentry, the prevalent and all-distorting party animosity had increased the hatred



*Photographed for this work by*

*Mr. Nansor Szabo.*

**THE ROYAL PALACE, BUDAPEST**



TO THE  
MEMBERS OF THE  
LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY

of foreigners, especially Germans, and above all of the Habsburgs."<sup>1</sup>

It will, then, no doubt be of interest to be told something about the rise and progress of this powerful family.

On the banks of the Aar, in Switzerland, towards the close of the eleventh century a bishop named Werner built himself a fortified palace among the crags of a lofty eminence. To those in the deep valley below the bishop's residence seemed like a speck on the horizon, and thus, in course of time, having regard to the predatory and unepiscopal habits of its owner, the peasantry came to refer to it as "*Der Habichtsburg*," which may be anglicised as the Hawk's Nest or stronghold. Bishop Werner's episcopal successors appear to have given ample reason for the application of the name. In their inaccessible eyrie they kept vigilant eyes on the valleys and seized every opportunity (not always restricted to moral or lawful means) to increase their wealth and power. Having reduced the immediate district to absolute fear, dependance, and subjection, they next made the adjoining districts the objects of their unwelcome attentions. In that age of barbarism social distinctions were not nicely drawn, the lines of separation between ecclesiastical and secular authority were very faint and irregular, and thus the occupants of the Hawk's Nest gradually added a civil to their religious influence. A little town sprang up under their feet, which, called Habichtsburg, after the episcopal castle, was corrupted by the peasants into *Habsburg*. The lord of the Hawk's Nest now threw off the sacred mantle, took the secular title of count, and later married. His descendants, by violence and intrigue, brought the whole north-east of Switzerland under their dominion, and their territory, defended by the Alpine mountains, could defy the proudest and mightiest barons of the land.

Rudolf, who became Count of Habsburg in 1240, spread the terror of his name throughout Switzerland. He would quarrel with his best friends, if by so doing he could have

<sup>1</sup> *Development of Hungarian Constitutional Liberty*, p. 296.

occasion to attack them and get possession of their estates. He raised his sword against his uncle, and as the price of peace demanded a strip of his relative's property. From another uncle he borrowed money, and being denied when he sought to borrow more, seized the whole of this kinsman's fortune. As guardian to his cousin Anne, he took advantage of his position to convey her vast properties to himself. He conquered many cities, among them Zurich, and was about to batter down the walls of Basle when he received the intelligence of his election to the Imperial throne of Germany. When the Bishop of Basle heard the news he is reported to have exclaimed, "Sit fast, O God, or Rudolf will have *Thy* throne next!"

Ottocar, Duke of Austria and King of Bohemia, at first refused to acknowledge him, but Rudolf compelled his submission by force of arms on the field of Marchfeld.<sup>1</sup>

Styria, Illyria, Carinthia, and Carniola were soon annexed, as well as part of Poland, by violence; and the Habsburgs ultimately reached a height of authority which enabled them to secure the succession to the German throne in their own family. Generations later Francis I resigned the crown of the Cæsars and declared himself Emperor of Austria: a cunning political move, as will be admitted when it is pointed out that the preceding Habsburgs had already swallowed up the German empire and incorporated it, piece by piece, with their extensive dominions.

Coxe, the historian of the House of Austria,<sup>2</sup> tells us that Frederick III used to amuse himself with the construction of anagrams. One of these compositions was extremely curious. It was based upon the five vowels, A, E, I, O, U. These letters were engraved on all the royal plate and carved on every article of palace furniture. The Sovereign never condescended to explain their significance, and his visitors were puzzled. Thousands attempted to interpret them, but

<sup>1</sup> *Vide* Chapter II.

<sup>2</sup> Vol. I, p. 277.

in vain. They continued an unsolved mystery till after Frederick's death, when the riddle was explained. On one of the leaves of his diary, the Imperial executors found the following singular inscription :

Austria Est Imperare Orbi Universo<sup>1</sup>  
 Alles Erdreich Ist Oesterreich Unterthan

This is indicative of the Habsburg policy, though it did not originate with Frederick ; it had been the actuating spirit of all his predecessors. It was bred and born in the Habichtsburg fastness. From the bishop it descended to the count, from the count to the duke, from the duke to the king, and from the King to the Emperor. The records of the Habsburgs, through a long line of princes, covering many centuries, furnish a clearer exposition of their family policy than even this royal enigma.

The present monarch, Francis Joseph, has passed the period of life when he can be dazzled by dreams and schemes of conquest, and reached an age when peace and tranquillity are preferable to the wild alarms of war.

The same cannot, I fear, be said of the Heir to the Thrones, Archduke Francis Ferdinand. The late Crown Prince Rudolf fixed Salonica as the future boundary of the Dual Monarchy ; and it is held by many at this moment that his present Imperial and Royal Highness contemplates in the not distant future a *coup d'état*. Vienna has to-day two opposite policies, and two chiefs representing them : the policy of *peace* inspired by Francis Joseph and defended by diplomacy, and the policy of *aggression* pursued by Francis Ferdinand and backed, as a matter of course, by the military leaders.

Judging his dominions to have reached the decisive point when they must live or die, dissolve or rise to greater power and glory, the Archduke has conceived a mighty plan. He designs to set free all those peoples who, discontented and at

<sup>1</sup> (Latin : *To Austria is it given to rule the universe.*  
 (German : *Everything in the universe is subject to Austria.*)

variance, make up the Dual Monarchy ; of establishing new principalities, and thus the great confederation of states comprising Hungary, Bohemia, Poland, with their personal chiefs and autonomy ; Servia, with her frontiers expanded by recent victories over the Turks and even increased by Slavonia ; and Montenegro, increased by a portion of Dalmatia and of Herzegowina—all these, erected into duchies, principalities, and kingdoms, he would make free, vigorous, and contented in a vast empire of which *he himself* would be the head and centre ! This would be the reconstruction, not of the Holy Roman and Germanic Empire, but of a Slavonic Empire outside Russia.

If we are to believe the Paris *Journal's* special correspondent at Vienna, Poland has already accepted the scheme, Bulgaria has divined it, and Servia is beginning to understand it and offers no serious objection.

Such a new Slavonic Empire would make short work of the political forms of Europe. There would doubtless be the rupture of alliances, the tearing up of treaties, and the snapping of international friendships ; but peace would be assured in the Near East, and to Francis Ferdinand's brand new empire, and incidentally to *himself*, would all these stupendous blessings be due. Dream worthy of a Habsburg ! But to realise this dream, in spite of all assurances of the acquiescence of certain parties, would be to deluge Europe in blood and bring to pass the prophesied Armageddon. Let the Hungarians beware of participating in an enterprise of this wild nature, which, even if successful, would drain the blood and resources of the country and rivet the fetters of bondage and oppression once more on their limbs. Let them rather cultivate the arts of peace, developing their commerce, and establishing friendly relations with their neighbours. In this, and not in schemes of conquest, lie Hungary's hopes of prosperity and independence.

**A Slavonic  
Empire.**

## CHAPTER IV

### THE HUNGARIAN CONSTITUTION

TRUE to the spirit of civil liberty, the ancient Magyars, on entering their new country, called a general assembly of the people, discussed their political needs, and laid the foundations of a constitution. **The Constitution. Its Origin and Development.** Consisting of about a million souls, they were originally divided into 108 tribes, distributed into seven grand divisions, each entirely independent of the others in its private affairs, but all living together in the form of a general confederation. Each of these grand divisions acknowledged the supremacy of a chief, called a *voivode*,<sup>1</sup> or duke; and a convention of these voivodes constituted the highest assembly and exercised the supreme authority of the nation. When thus gathered together for the transaction of business, they elected one of their number temporary president, this election giving him no new permanent powers, but only authority to guide the deliberations of the assembly while in session. The convention was not a legislative body, for it could make no laws binding on the divisions which affected their private interests. Each division had its own peculiar institutions, and each voivode at the council represented the predetermined wishes of his constituents. All the divisions were, however, naturally interested in whatever concerned the *federal* operations of the nations, so that a majority of votes in the voivodes' council always gave direction thereto.

But this form of government, eminently republican—though it would have been very valuable to a people sufficiently civilised to appreciate it—needed in those barbarous times a central authority above that of a mere chairman of assembly, or even a president of a modern state. Necessity soon taught the Hungarians that, unless some such central

<sup>1</sup> In Hungarian, *vajda* (pron. *voida*).



authority was appointed, the success they hoped for in their great enterprise would be impossible. This important need was accordingly met. The voivodes assembled and, in the presence of the whole people, each voivode opened a vein in his arm, and the blood thus shed, collected in a vessel, was drunk by the contracting parties. This solemn rite performed, lots were drawn for the new officer. The lot fell to Almos,<sup>1</sup> whose valour in war, wisdom in counsel, and virtues as a man, all rendered him worthy of the exalted position he was henceforth to occupy. This result announced, the voivodes addressed Almos: "From this day thou art our supreme chief and commander. Lead on; we follow thee."<sup>2</sup>

At the subsequent convention the following covenant was ratified: (1) The supreme chief should always be *elected* from the descendants of Almos.<sup>3</sup> (2) Whatever property or spoil should be acquired, should be divided amongst the voivodes. (3) The voivodes, having elected Almos to his high dignity, should, as well as their descendants, never be excluded by Almos or his successors, either from the supreme chief's council or from the government. (4) Should any voivode or his descendant break this covenant made with the supreme chief, his blood should be shed, even as the blood of the original covenanting parties had been shed at the election of Almos. (5) On the other hand, should Almos or any descendant of his, or any of the present voivodes, or their descendants, break this pledge mutually made, the outlaws' curse should be pronounced upon them and rest on them for ever; they should be degraded from their offices and banished irrevocably.

By this original constitution of the Hungarians four estates were recognised: the supreme chief, the voivodes, the officers under them, and the common warriors. Besides these, however, there were, led onward and defended by the warriors,

<sup>1</sup> *Vide* Chapter I.

<sup>2</sup> Horváth: *Geschichte der Ungarn*.

<sup>3</sup> No mention of the *hereditary right* of any member of the family.

a considerable mass of human beings who, on account of various disabilities were not prepared to fight; they performed what other services they could, and were glad to be acknowledged as the useful, albeit servile, kindred of their armed brethren. Feeling sufficiently compensated for their services by receiving food, clothing, and protection, they claimed no right in the making of rules or laws, but were content to obey those made by their superiors; hence they were, according to their tacit admission, simply *peasants*, or countrymen, without sovereign rights in any form. Hence in the National Assemblies of early times we find two distinct classes (sub-divided, of course, into other classes)—aristocracy (comprising the prince, nobles, and warriors) and democracy (the peasants just now alluded to).

Now Arpád, son of the first supreme chief Almos, proved very much like most men whose family has risen to a privileged position: he wished to secure the

Arpád. supremacy to his descendants. Aware of

the high respect in which he was held—he was, as I have already pointed out, the “Joshua” who had led the Magyars into the Land of Promise—he resolved to turn that respect to his own advantage. Calling all his armies together on the plain of Pusztaszer, he gave them a revision of the charter of their liberties. An unknown Hungarian writer, a monk, who has left to posterity a number of interesting manuscripts<sup>1</sup> signed *Anonymous*, says: “The rights and duties of the people, as well as the relations between them, the nobles, and the prince, were more accurately set forth than they had been before; judges were appointed, and the execution of the laws, and the penalties for infringing them, were established.” Territory was then distributed by Arpád among his followers; for it was above all his desire to attach to himself *servants* to defend him and his descendants against the voivodes and lesser chiefs, who were disposed to conduct themselves towards Arpád with greater independence

<sup>1</sup> Many of them, however, giving data now proved to be false.

than pleased him. The importance of these latter he effectually reduced by generous gifts of estates to the most faithful of his people, who themselves looking to him for protection against the other chiefs, would naturally be interested in the preservation of their patron's power. All the *fortified places* of the land Arpád took unto *himself*, thus holding the key of the house, to use a figure of speech. He could not, however, long hold these numerous and widely scattered domains entirely in his own hands. Therefore he appointed the chief leaders under himself to be *comites castri*, empowered to hold these national properties in the name of the prince, who possessed the prerogative to change his representatives whenever he thought fit for the common good. Thus, in effect, all the castles and strongholds continued to be his and his descendants', securing his and their authority for all time.

After the question of the castles was settled, came that of the fighting forces ; and again by a judicious granting of lands Arpád secured the warriors as the special supporters of the prince as much as the defenders of the fatherland. Foreigners also he favoured who were disposed to leave their own birthlands and become his subjects ; thus further strengthening his position.

Such were Arpád's political characteristics ; he was, however, just and humane. When he fought and had conquered, those who submitted he restored to their rank and possessions, reducing none to a position of servitude. When he died, in 907 A.D., he was mourned by a people whom he had raised to a position of prosperity and contentment.

Stephen, the Saint-King, the fourth of Arpád's successors, the first Christian ruler of Hungary, and the first to bear the title of *king*, made essential changes in the

St. Stephen. constitution by request of the Pope, whose *protégé* he was, and to whom he was indebted for the " holy " crown he wore.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> *Vide* Chapter II.

THE  
OF  
MAGAZINE



HIS EXCELLENCY COUNT ALBERT APPONYI, M.P.  
(*Sometime Minister for Public Instruction*)

2010  
ANNUAL  
REPORT

There is no one written document in existence called the Hungarian Constitution; it is the product of evolution through a series of precedents and laws extending over a period of many centuries. As, however, the *Magna Charta* of King John (1217) is the first known document of the English constitution, so the first written document of the Hungarian constitution is the *Bulla Aurea* or "Golden Bull" of King Andrew II, bearing date 1222.

The  
Golden Bull.

In Chapter II the reader has already seen how Hungary had constantly to contend with fierce enemies, Tartars and Turks, and how for a period of 150 years the half of the country was occupied by the Turkish invaders.

When, towards the end of the seventeenth century, the armies of the Emperor-King Leopold finally drove the Turks out of Hungary, German oppression followed, which was hardly better than the Turkish rule had been. It drove the people to despair, so that this poor country, almost exhausted, almost annihilated by the three centuries of struggle that had gone before, had to take arms again and fight for ten years a heroic war against her own kings who had become oppressors—a war which, after many fluctuations of defeat and victory, ended in a compromise which was on the whole favourable to Hungary, because therein Hungary again solemnly recognised the right of the Habsburg dynasty to rule in Hungary, but on the other hand the dynasty solemnly pledged itself to respect the Constitution.<sup>1</sup>

Notwithstanding the ideas of despotism that prevailed all over Europe in mediæval times, the continuity of the Hungarian Constitution has never been interrupted. The sixteenth century, which crushed the life out of almost all free institutions, left *two* standing: the English and the Hungarian Constitutions.

The King of Hungary's prerogative was a powerful one;

<sup>1</sup> Count Albert Apponyi, M.P.: Lecture on *The Growth of the Hungarian Constitution*.

it was necessary, in the interests of the country's defence, that it should be so. That prerogative was, however, so hedged about with guarantees that it was prevented from being a danger to the commonwealth. So early as the thirteenth century we find an enactment that no ordinance of the King should have any legal value unless it were signed by certain officers of state; and another that he should be *deposed* if there were any adverse vote of the estates against him.

Like all mediæval Constitutions, that of Hungary was founded upon privilege. Political rights were possessed only

by the class who bore arms—called by the Privilege of Aristocracy. Hungarian law-books *nobilis* and *membrum sacrae coronae*. These do not correspond much to the English conception of "nobles," but rather to "free citizens"—free men liable to bear arms in their country's (or their Sovereign's) cause. At the time of the French Revolution the population of Hungary was about 6,000,000, and of that number some 300,000 were "nobles" in the sense described, and therefore were entitled to vote. These "nobles" were, however, a democratic body in an important respect: the wealthy and powerful were equal before the law with the poorest possessors of the franchise.

This aristocratic *régime* continued till about the middle of the nineteenth century, when Count Stephen Széchenyi (affectionately styled by his compatriots "The Greatest Hungarian") introduced plans for reform which should give the lower classes also their due share of constitutional privileges. His actions brought him into conflict with the most eminent men of his age, but he eventually triumphed, and an end was put to privilege in 1848 by the privileged persons themselves consenting to renounce the special rights they and their forefathers had enjoyed for ages.

Notwithstanding the multiplicity of races in Hungary, there is only one kind of citizenship—Hungarian citizenship.

Whether Magyar, Slovak, or Roumanian, a man is *Hungarian*, and entitled to the benefits of the Constitution.<sup>1</sup>

In close connection with the Constitution are the relations of Hungary with Austria. When the Hungarians called the first Habsburg to reign over them, it was not **Relations between Austria and Hungary.** in the least with the intention of their realm becoming a portion of the Austrian Empire. It was an alliance for mutual safety—not an amalgamation or an assimilation the one of the other. The prime condition under which the Habsburgs were called to the Hungarian throne was that they should rule in Hungary according to the provisions of the Constitution. This condition was *solemnly accepted* by the first Habsburg, and afterwards *sworn* to by every Habsburg at his coronation as King of Hungary. In practice it has often been evaded by the monarch and his advisers, but the theory has never legally been abandoned.

By the terms of the Pragmatic Sanction, the Habsburg ruler of Austria was also to be the ruler of Hungary; both countries were to assist each other against foreign aggression; but the independence and ancient liberties of Hungary were to be preserved inviolate. Joseph II<sup>2</sup> made strenuous attempts to convert Hungary into a province of Austria. From his point of view it was with the best intentions. The excellent popular reforms he would have instituted, we cannot fail to admire; but the Magyars would have none of them since he defied their Constitution. In the reign of his successor Leopold II, a law was passed, similar to the English "Declaration of Right" under Charles I, in which the Habsburg King of Hungary was made to *reassert* the legal status of the realm. The original is in Latin; the following is an exact translation:

"Law XI, 1791. On the humble petition of the Estates and Orders of the Realm, His Most Sacred Majesty has been graciously pleased to recognise: That though the succession

<sup>1</sup> *Vide* Chapter V.

<sup>2</sup> *Vide* Chapter II.



of the female branch of the Austrian House, decreed in Hungary and her annexed parts by Laws I and II of 1723, belongs, according to the fixed order of succession, and in indivisible and inseparable possession, to the same prince whose it is in the other kingdoms and hereditary domains situated in or out of Germany, *Hungary with her annexed parts is none the less a free and independent kingdom concerning her whole form of rule (including therein every branch of administration) which signifies: under submission to no other kingdom or people,<sup>1</sup> but possessing her own consistence and constitution*; therefore must she be ruled by her hereditary and crowned kings, as well by His Present Majesty as his successors, in accordance with her own laws and customs and not after the example of other provinces, as already enacted by Laws III of 1715, and VIII and XI of 1741."

Nothing, one might suppose, could be plainer than this; yet in published books and in the daily press one is constantly meeting with references to the "*Austro-Hungarian Empire*"; places in Hungary are said to be in *Austria*; Hungarian statesmen are *Austrian* statesmen; Hungarian nobles, *Austrian* nobles; events happening in Hungary are given as taking place in *Austria*, and so on *ad infinitum*, much to the annoyance of the Hungarians themselves, who like their political existence to be recognised by the nations abroad. It is a greater matter even than calling a Scotsman or Irishman an *Englishman*, since both belong to the British Empire; the Hungarian on the contrary does *not* belong to the Austrian Empire, and to avoid wounding the susceptibilities of the Magyars, visitors to Hungary will do well to remember this fact.

There is a party or political school in Austria who are trying to make out a case for a unified Austrian Empire, to include Hungary, and they claim that when the Emperor Francis I, in 1804, put off the title of German Emperor and assumed that of Emperor of Austria, he intended to assume it with regard to his dominions as a whole. That may or

<sup>1</sup> *Nulli alio regno vel populo subditum.*

may not be so ; but if Francis *did* intend, the intention was in conflict with the law. No person, even a king, has the right to alter arbitrarily a condition of things arranged on the basis of a convention with another party.

Though the Emperor of Austria and the King of Hungary happen to be the same *physical* person, he is *juridically* two persons, his prerogative in the one case being entirely different from his prerogative in the other. For instance, while in Austria the people have only such rights as the Emperor has allowed them, *in Hungary the position is reversed, and the King has only such rights as the people have allowed him in the Constitution.* In Austria the Emperor may issue ordinances that have the force of law, even to collect taxes and levy recruits ; *in Hungary the King may do nothing of the kind.* If he should attempt to do so, any officials who dared to assist him would be guilty of high treason and dealt with for that capital crime. As in the laws of all civilised nations it is an act of treason for a subject to appeal to a foreign sovereign, *so it is treason for a subject of the King of Hungary to appeal to the Emperor of Austria !*

All Hungarian institutions are based on the *firm bed-rock fact* of an independent Hungarian kingdom. There is an Austrian Parliament and a Hungarian Parliament, *but there is no such thing as an Austro-Hungarian Parliament ; consequently there are no Austro-Hungarian M.P.'s, neither are there any Austro-Hungarian subjects.* They may belong to either the one State or the other, but *not to both.*<sup>1</sup>

The actual true significance of the term "Austria-Hungary"—so familiar to British ears, yet so little understood—is that two *independent* nations, called respectively Austria and Hungary, have become *united* for certain definite purposes to their mutual advantage. Simply that, and nothing more nor less than that.

<sup>1</sup> For the "Common Affairs" (Army, Navy, and Foreign Relations) of the Dual Monarchy, *vide* the *Austrian* section of this work.

## CHAPTER V

### OF POLITICS AND POLITICIANS

POLITICS in Hungary are very complicated, and the British reader will not understand them until he has learned the difference between the Hungarian and the English systems of government. The King of Great Britain reigns but does *not* govern :  
**The Royal Power.** the King of Hungary both reigns *and* governs. *In theory* there is no difference between the prerogative of the Hungarian monarch and that of the English ; but the actual distribution of power between the Crown and the representatives of the nation is in Hungary to-day what it was in England in George III's time ; it is a natural phase in the evolution of parliamentary government. Though King Francis Joseph has never refused to sanction a Bill passed through both Houses of Parliament, his *personal will* in the work of the legislation is effected in his requiring his *consent* to be given to any Bill *before it is brought before Parliament*.

In Great Britain custom and precedent oblige the Sovereign to choose as premier the leader of the political party predominant for the time being : in Hungary the King may, and often does, choose the man most likely to give effect to his (the King's) views and wishes.<sup>1</sup> British ministers are in a real sense the servants of the people, responsible to Parliament : in Hungary they are the servants of the King, and must submit to His Majesty a programme he will sanction before he invites them to take office. Thus a man ambitious

<sup>1</sup> A good illustration of this was the case of Baron Fejérváry in 1905. Appointed Premier by the king without a following, he made no attempt to seek the confidence of the nation ; he was in fact indifferent to it ; *he had the King's confidence and that was sufficient for him !* This was, of course, most unconstitutional. Again, in 1910, Count Khuen-Héderváry was appointed Premier with no party behind him ; he did, however, succeed in getting a majority—somehow !



*Photographed for this work by*

*Mr. Nándor Szabó.*

**THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, EASTERN FAÇADE, BUDAPEST**

70 . VIII  
ABSTRACT

for the premiership must have the honour to be "known" by the King or he stands but little chance of achieving success in that direction: popular favour avails him nothing.

Another interesting difference between the sovereignties is that, on the one hand the British monarch on the assembling of Parliament goes in person to meet his people in "The House" and there reads his "Speech from the Throne." In the event of the Sovereign's illness, or bodily infirmity (as in the case of Queen Victoria in her later years) the "Speech" is read in Parliament by the Lord Chancellor. On the other hand, King Francis Joseph of Hungary never goes in state to Parliament, but summons the members thereof to his presence in the Royal Palace, where he makes known *his will*.

Parliament is summoned by the King for a period of five years; but, in accordance with law, it must assemble within three months of its dissolution, or even within any shorter period if the budget for the ensuing year has not been passed.

The  
Parliament.

During the past ten years parliamentary deadlocks have been frequent, sometimes attended with disgraceful scenes in "The House." To mention only a single instance: the members of the Fejérváry Cabinet (1905) were socially boycotted; army supplies were refused by Parliament; and nearly everybody throughout the country refused to pay taxes.

The Houses of Parliament at Budapest were completed so recently as 1896 at a cost of £1,500,000. In florid Gothic style they form, Westminster excepted, the most magnificent legislative palace in the world. Abutting on the Danube, as St. Stephen's abuts on the Thames, it is a most imposing pile, though a row of common wooden palings in the immediate vicinity spoils the otherwise pleasing effect, and as the eye turns from the one to the other the beholder experiences a descent from the sublime to the ridiculous. For interior magnificence the Hungarian Parliament building vies with that of the English. Stately corridors, whose ceilings are

exquisitely carved and gilded, whose walls are adorned alternately with gigantic mirrors and historical paintings, whose floors are laid with the softest of carpet, yielding to the footfall and deadening the noise; noble staircases and lofty halls, superbly furnished and decorated with statuary, busts, and other works of national art, as befits the traditions of a great people; its awe-inspiring throne-room, which the King has never deigned to use; the rich decoration of the whole building, its frescoes, and the majestic proportions of its exterior, adorned with 258 statues of statesmen and others who have won the gratitude of posterity—all render it a worthy home for the legislature of a nation whose constitution is nearly as old as that of the English.

And what of the legislators themselves? The Hungarian Lower House consists of 453<sup>1</sup> members, many of them lawyers. Each receives the equivalent of £250 a year as salary, and travels at half rate on the State railways. These professional legislators represent a population of 19,000,000, of whom only about 1,200,000 are electors. The present qualifications for exercising the franchise are somewhat involved: (1) A minimum income of £4 10s. and payment of direct taxes amounting to 16s. 8d. (2) In the large towns the renting of a dwelling of three living rooms.<sup>2</sup> (3) The employment of an assistant. (4) Ancient privileges under the Constitution. (The initial condition is that the citizen be not less than twenty-four years of age.) Besides these, however, there are more than 30,000 persons who have votes in right of professional qualifications: such are, members of learned bodies, clergymen, professors, physicians, apothecaries, notaries, civil engineers, and schoolmasters. (Soldiers, policemen, and revenue officials have no votes.)

The following extracts from Law XXXIII (1874) on the

<sup>1</sup> Forty of whom represent the Provincial Diet of Croatia.

<sup>2</sup> Two living rooms (with the usual appurtenances) are generally as much as the clerk or shop-assistant can afford; while the artisan, if he *must* live in town, has often to be content with one room. In Budapest rents are very high.

subject will assist the reader to a right understanding of the situation :

“ Property qualification : (a) In free towns, owners of houses which contain three dwellings paying house tax, and owners of land paying taxes on a direct income of 32 crowns (Sec. 3 a, b). (b) In country districts, owners of ‘ a quarter urbarial session ’ or its equivalent. (This nominally corresponds to about 14 acres.) (c) Owners of houses whose house tax was imposed on a basis of 210 crowns of clear income (Sec. 6a). (d) In Transylvania, house owners who pay ground tax on a direct income of 168 crowns, 159 crowns 60 fillér and 145 crowns 60 fillér respectively, according to the class under which they are scheduled for purposes of taxation (Sec. 5a).

“ Taxation qualification—(a) Merchants, manufacturers or town artisans, paying taxes on income of at least 210 crowns (Sec. 6 c, d). (b) In boroughs, those who pay taxes for at least one apprentice (Sec. 6e). (c) Those paying State taxes on a direct income of at least 210 crowns (Secs. 5b, 6b). (d) Those paying income tax on 210 crowns’ income in Class I, on 1,400 crowns in Class II, or in the case of officials on 1,000 crowns in Class II (Sec. 7).

“ Professional and official qualification : All members of the Hungarian Academy, academy artists, professors, doctors, veterinary surgeons, engineers, chemists, foresters ; public and communal notaries, advocates, clergy, schoolmasters (Sec. 9).

“ Ancestral qualification : All those possessing the franchise previous to 1848 (Sec. 2). In 1905, according to the Statistical Year-Book, 32,712 persons still voted by right of ancient privileges.”

The ballot is *not secret in Hungary*,<sup>1</sup> and as a result

<sup>1</sup> Till 1874 the option of the secret ballot lay in each county and municipal authority ; but this option was abolished by Law XXXIII of that year. Most shop windows in Budapest display the legend, *Eljen az általános titkos választójog !* (*Long live universal secret suffrage !*). Whether this be the real sentiment of all those who display the legend is a question ; but even so Hungarians get, not what they want, but what their Government thinks good for them.



intimidation and corruption are too often brought to light. It is not likely that a poor man with wife and family to support will shout up his vote "according to his conscience" when he knows that to utter the name of the candidate whom his employer, or his employer's friends, disapprove, will probably cost him the loss of his position, or at least the favour of his employer. Such heroics can hardly be expected of the working or dependent classes. Many are in favour of the secret ballot, for, in the words of a certain Hungarian statesman, "unless the ballot be secret it is like taking back with one hand what has been given with the other."

The question of electoral reform overshadows all others, and the extension of the franchise is admitted on every hand to be inevitable. Men of all parties are in agreement with the statement of Count Andeássy, on introducing his Bill (November, 1908), that the future of Hungary depends on the solution of the electoral problem. Though differing widely on many things, they are apparently at one in regarding Universal Suffrage as the remedy for the present political evils. The King himself is said to favour it. "Social reform," says Count Tivadar Batthyány, "is inconceivable without Universal Suffrage"; while Mr. Julius Justh holds that "electoral abuses can be cured only by the introduction of universal equal, and secret suffrage (*általános titkos választójog*)."

I suppose no English reader will be disposed to challenge the principle of voting *in secret*, though there is room for difference of opinion as to whether *all* citizens should enjoy the vote or only a *selection* of them. My personal view is that there should be an educational qualification for the exercise of the franchise and that the authorities of any country should see to it that their citizens are given proper opportunity to raise themselves to the required standard. "So long as the people are uncultivated," says Mr. Sigisyaund Várady, M.P., "so long will there be electoral abuses."

The Independence Party, to which belong Count Albert Apponyi and Mr. Francis Kossuth, are in favour of the secret ballot in principle, the abolition of the property qualification, and the extension of the franchise to all adult male persons able to read and write, and who, if workers, are members for one year out of two, of an insurance society. This scheme would confer the franchise on about 2,500,000—more than double the present electorate. Though the Independence Party consists of two sections (the Kossuth section standing principally for an independent army, and the Justh section for an independent national bank), both sections are united to restore legal continuity in the House of Parliament.<sup>1</sup>

A franchise Bill framed by the present Government (the National Work Party, otherwise the Liberal Party, but more corresponding to the British Conservative Party), was recently the cause of serious agitation among the working classes of this country, who threaten a general strike if it should pass the Lower House. Its provisions are even more involved than those of the law actually in force.

The present Cabinet is composed of Count Stephen Tisza (Premier), Dr. John Teleszky (Finance Minister), Baron John Harkányi (Commerce), Mr. John Sándor (Interior), General Hazay (National Defence), Baron Imre Ghillány (Agriculture), Dr. Béla Jankovich (Public Instruction), and Dr. Eugene Balogh (Justice).

Other political parties are the People's (or Clerical) Party, led by Count Aladár Zichy, and the two Socialist parties—the Christian Socialists and the Democrats—whose heads are respectively Canon Giesswein and Dr. William Vázsonyi.

The four leading figures in present-day Hungarian politics are Count Tisza, a statesman of great ability and honesty of purpose, with the courage of his convictions; Count Apponyi,

<sup>1</sup> The legal continuity was broken in November, 1904, by Count Tisza's *coup d'état* to crush obstruction.

his doughty opponent; Count Andrassy, whose ruling passion is political honesty; and Mr. Francis Kossuth, whose unsatisfactory health however prevents his frequent appearance in public.

The description of a Hungarian election cannot fail to be instructive to the English reader, and he shall have one:

An  
Election.

but though I have witnessed several elections,  
it is preferable to hear what the Magyar  
himself has to say on the subject. The

following is, therefore, the narration<sup>1</sup> of a Hungarian Deputy or M.P.:

“An election begins by the introduction of the candidate, which may be made by ten electors of the constituency. When this has not been done on the day preceding the election, it may be pointed out before the polling commences. If, half an hour before polling, one candidate only has been introduced, the returning officer announces that there will be no contest and declares the said candidate duly elected. If there is more than one candidate and the electors demand a poll, it is proceeded with.

“The voting is everywhere uniform, *public*, and *oral*. Each elector, having given his name and established his identity, *proclaims in a loud voice* the name of the candidate for whom he intends to vote: and then, beside the elector's name on the voting paper, is written the name of the candidate to whom he gives his vote.

“The various communes comprising a constituency are admitted to the poll in the order arranged by the Central Committee, and the electors of each are called separately, according to the candidate for whom they vote. It is decided by lot for the first commune at a particular polling station which party shall be first admitted to vote: after that, the adherents of each party are called by turns, in batches of twenty or more.

“No fixed number of votes is required for the validity of

<sup>1</sup> Translated by the author.



HIS EXCELLENCY FRANCIS KOSSUTH, M.P.  
*(Sometime Minister of Commerce)*

70 1981  
A. B. C. D. E. F. G. H. I. J. K. L. M. N. O. P. Q. R. S. T. U. V. W. X. Y. Z.

an election, but when neither candidate has obtained an absolute majority a ballot takes place between the two candidates who have polled the most. In such an event the Central Committee fixes the date of the second poll, for which there must be an interval of at least fourteen days.

“With regard to our electoral manners, I must confess that they leave something to be desired. Illegitimate governmental influences and individual corruption have been spread so assiduously that, for a long time, no serious attempt was made to check the evil. I am happy, however, to be able to add that the recent law on jurisdiction in electoral matters has produced a revolution in this respect. The elections of 1901 were, on the whole, very clean-handed; so were those of 1906; but those of 1910 were the most corrupt within our memory.”

There is no fixed hour for closing the poll: it is left to the discretion of the returning officer—a discretion which it is not impossible to abuse.

It has been proved again and again that the most effective weapon in diplomacy is straightforwardness; it is equally true that the proletariat is most easily ruled by the statesman who unswervingly follows the straight path. There is every reason for scrupulous integrity in those at the head of affairs in Hungary, where it is admitted that underhand dealing exists in connection with political matters, while cases are not unknown in which prominent politicians have been openly convicted of jobbery. The progress of popular education, however, will no doubt cause such scandals to diminish; as highly placed public servants can hardly afford to defy a fully enlightened public opinion.

Of the two Chambers forming the Hungarian Parliament, one—the Chamber of Deputies—has already been referred to sufficiently for the reader to gather a fairly correct idea of what it is like, and in what respects it differs from its British counterpart.

I will now endeavour to present a word-picture of the Chamber of Magnates, or "House of Lords." It comprises seventeen members of the Royal family. The Magnates. the presidents of the Royal High Courts of Appeal, the Catholic *diocesan* bishops,<sup>1</sup> Roman and Greek, and Greek Orthodox, six representatives (clerical and lay) of the two great Protestant confessions, the Lutheran and the Calvinist, one Unitarian bishop, and the hereditary aristocracy to the number of 234 (each of whom must pay at least £250 a year in land tax). Besides these there are "life-members" created by the King, the total number of whom may not exceed fifty, nor may His Majesty create more than four annually: three members elected by the Diet of Croatia, and the twenty odd remaining members of the fifty appointed once for all by the Magnates who, having sat before the Reform Law was passed, have lost the exercise of their right in the Upper House, the taxes they pay not reaching the amount prescribed by the new law.

Members of the Hungarian House of Lords—unlike those of the British Empire—are eligible for election to the House of Commons (Deputies); but should they exercise an M.P.'s mandate their right in the Upper House is suspended for the time being. The chief dignitaries of the realm, however, cannot seek popular suffrage without definitely renouncing their high offices.

A few words on the sub-nationalities' question must bring this chapter to a close.

On the language basis the Magyars in Hungary form a majority over all the sub-races or nationalities. They are also superior in wealth and culture. On Sub-nationalities. these grounds they justify their supremacy in the government of the country. It is often charged to the Magyar's account that he "oppresses the strangers within his gates," depriving them of their political rights. This accusation, so wounding to his *amour*

<sup>1</sup> The *titular* bishops have been excluded.

*propre*, he is constantly rebutting. Indeed, it would be interesting to know what sums of money the Hungarian Government spends annually in publications, permanent and ephemeral, intended to explain the whole matter to the satisfaction of their foreign neighbours—Great Britain especially. It must be considerable. It is a common saying among the Magyars, with regard to this question, that "a man must be master in his own house": and they beg to know, with apparent sincerity, what England would do if she had (for example) colonies of Germans, French and Russians settled in various parts of her country, who, while claiming to be British subjects, were always working in the interests of their original fatherlands, instead of in those of their adopted country, stirring up strife and causing strained relations between the one and the other. As we English have never, I believe, had a similar experience, it is not easy to find an answer to the query.

In Hungary there are Roumanians (16·6 per cent.), Germans (11·3 per cent.), Slovaks (11·3 per cent.), Servians (2·6 per cent.) and Ruthenians (2·5 per cent.).<sup>1</sup>

Dr. Julius Vargha claims (and his is no doubt the official view) that the tendencies of these sub-nationalities is towards disintegration and ought to be checked. No single non-Magyar race living in Hungary, he says, can base any claim to a separate national existence on the right of pre-settlement, as they were all welcomed as colonists during the rule of the Hungarian Kings. Unbiased historians have proved that the proud claim of the Roumanians, or Wallachians, to be the descendants of the Dacian legionaries of Trajan, is neither more nor less than a fable. They did not make their appearance in Hungary until the thirteenth century, when they were found as shepherds tending their flocks among the hills. Groaning under the yoke of their own *boyars*, they were attracted to this country by the more humane treatment of the Hungarian landed proprietors.

<sup>1</sup> Figures furnished by the Government Statistics' Department.



The fact that uniformity of speech—a characteristic of most European States—is not found in Hungary, is due chiefly to her turbulent history and partly to her toleration. The sub-nationalities are welcome to their languages, but the Magyars claim the right to lead. The assimilation of the races, too, especially of the better educated classes, is so extensive that it would be impossible to-day to settle Hungarian society according to descent. Intermarriage has been so common that it would be hard to find a Magyar who has not the blood of one or more of the sub-nationalities in his veins. Those whose mother-tongue is German, Slav, or Roumanian enjoy perfect freedom in the use of their idiom. There are thousands of churches in Hungary in which the Magyar tongue is never heard. They enjoy their idiom also in parochial and county administration. Though the teaching medium is Magyar in the grammar schools belonging to the State, two-thirds at least of the grammar schools are denominational, supported nominally by the religious communities whose names they bear, but really by generous State grants. In such schools the teaching medium is the language of the *nominal* supporters—non-Magyar in quite a third of the cases. The Hungarian Government merely stipulates (1) that the instruction shall be inspired by a patriotic spirit, and (2) that the Magyar language shall *also* be taught.

When the abolition of the privileges of the nobility overthrew class distinctions (in 1848), all those who had received a good education, of whatever nationality and rank of society, became Magyars in tongue and sentiment. Even the children of foreigners recently settled in the country have become Hungarians in the first generation.

## CHAPTER VI

### LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

OF oriental origin, as we have already seen, the Magyars have dwelt so long in Europe that their language is neither oriental nor occidental, but a mixture of both. It is

**The Speech  
of Hungary.**

a language of prefixes and suffixes, rich in inflections, almost every relation existing between things being perfectly expressed by modifications of the words. One may almost regard it as a syllabic tongue, the syllables being capable of an infinite variety of unions : and although usually the Magyar employs simple terms to express himself, it is quite possible to construct a whole sentence in a single word. Thus : *Megkarimázilanithatndlak* (" I could take the brim off your hat "). *Megköpényegesítelenítte (" I could deprive you of your gown "). With all its flexibility, however, it is remarkable that many relative words have no abstract forms on which the relatives are based. Though the word *asszony* (woman) has a number of modifications, the Hungarian word for *wife* cannot be expressed without qualification ; one may speak of my wife (*feleségem*), or his wife (*felesége*), but never of *wife* simply. Though a *woman* may stand alone, a *wife* is always associated with another person, naturally a male.*

It is known that several European languages have absurdities with regard to the gender of some substantives. In French for instance, all inanimate objects are either masculine or feminine : in German a " little man " is neuter as well as a " girl " and a " Miss " : the same in Greek ; but the greatest absurdity is in the Hungarian, for *man*, *woman*, and *child*, are neither masculine, feminine, nor neuter : there being no genders at all in the Magyar tongue.

A favourite way of presenting a strange language to a

reader is the use of the Lord's Prayer as a medium. This I give, with a sublinear rendering into English, as follows :

*Mi Atyánk ki vagy a Mennyekben, szenteltesék meg a Te*  
 Our Father who art in Heaven, hallowed be Thy  
*Neved ; jöjjön el a Te Országad ; legyen meg a Te akaratod*  
 Name ; come Thy Kingdom ; let Thy will (be done)  
*mint a Mennyben úgy a földön is ; a mi mindennapi*  
 as in Heaven so on Earth also ; our every-day  
*kenyerünket add meg nekünk ma ; és bocsásd meg a mi*  
 bread give us to-day ; and pardon our  
*vétkeinket, miképen mi is megbocsátunk azoknak, a kik*  
 trespasses, as we pardon those who  
*ellenünk vétkeztek ; és ne vigy minket kísértetbe ;*  
 trespass against us : and not lead us into temptation ;  
*de szabadíts meg minket a gonosztól ; mert Tied az*  
 but deliver us from evil : for Thine (is) the  
*Ország, és a hatalom, és a dicsőség mind örökké.*  
 Kingdom, and the power, and the glory forever.

There are many striking analogies between the Magyar and the Hebrew tongues, as the few examples following will show : *Kalap* (hat) suggests the Hebrew *kelub*, anything woven—as were the hats of the common Hungarians in the early times. *Nap* (sun, or day) is similar to the Hebrew *noph* (light). Compare *csillag* (star) with *kilak*, the Hebrew for flashing or twinkling.

On the other hand, there are a few words in Magyar that will sound familiar to English ears—not, however, that the Hungarians have borrowed them from us, but we from them in most cases : *Ház* (house), *kocsi* (coach), *huszár* (hussar), *csákó* (shako), *juh* (ewe), *kapitány* (captain), *ét* (eat), *mester* (master), *orkán* (hurricane), *posta* (post-office), *Szent* (saint), *tyúk* (hen, chuck), *csirke* (chicken) and *vers* (verse).

A little knowledge, however, is often a dangerous thing, and it were well that the reader, if interested in the study of comparative philology, should pay due attention to the following :

*Budor* is not butter, but furniture.

*Boldog* is not that fierce animal to which the Briton is sometimes likened : it signifies happy.

*Elegy* is a mixture, and has no reference to Gray's well-known verses.

*Eleven* is not the number, it means alive.

*Fog* is not the famous product of London, but a tooth.

*Hat* is not to be worn on the head, it is the number six.

*Hít* is not suggestive of a blow, it means faith.

*Karhit* is not for the floor, it is wall-paper.

Every priest or minister of religion in Hungary is a pope (*pap*).

The foregoing examples of Hungarian words will be better understood by a few explanatory remarks on the pronunciation, and the value of the letters of the alphabet, where they differ materially from the English :

<i>a</i>	pronounced as in <i>watch</i> .
<i>á</i>	„ „ <i>bar</i> .
<i>e</i>	„ „ <i>let</i> .
<i>é</i>	„ as <i>a</i> in <i>late</i> .
<i>i</i>	„ „ <i>ea</i> „ <i>meat</i> .
<i>ó</i>	„ „ <i>oa</i> „ <i>moan</i> .
<i>u</i>	„ as in <i>full</i> .
<i>ú</i>	„ as <i>oo</i> in <i>tool</i> .
<i>ö</i> and <i>ő</i>	„ like the German <i>ö—ö</i> being given a longer drawl.
<i>ü</i> and <i>ű</i>	„ like the French <i>u</i> in <i>mur</i> and <i>une</i> respectively.

As to the consonants : *c* is always soft ; *g* is always hard (to soften it *y* must be added *-gy*) ; *j* has the value of *y* in *yes* ; and *s* is pronounced like *sh* in *she* (the addition of *z*—thus *sz*—

gives it the value of the English *s*). Besides the two compound consonants referred to, there are *cs*, like the English *ch*; and *sz*, like the French *j*.

Once the various sounds are mastered, the pronunciation of Hungarian is extremely simple. It is absolutely phonetic and the accent is invariably on the first syllable.

But the student must beware of the accented vowels, or he will be caught tripping. *Kar* means arm, and *kár* injury; *kerék* is round, *kerék* wheel, and *kérek* please; *őrült* means mad, and *örült*, he was glad; *megyek*, I go, and *megyék*, countries; *kutya* means dog, and *kútja*, his well; *érem*, my vein, and *érem*, medal; *rák*, crab, and *rak*, to store.

Any language must appear difficult to the uninitiated, and those who know the Magyar tongue except Hungarians, are somewhat few and far between. Yet it is a language worth knowing; for, new as it may be to many of my compatriots, Hungary has a literature worthy of the country's great past.

The most ancient manuscript existing in the Magyar is a funeral oration and prayer dating as far back as the twelfth century, having been transcribed in the year 1171 during the reign

of Stephen III.

After the nation had become Christian an impetus was given to literary activity, and numbers of translations of parts of the Holy Scriptures, sermons, prayers, hymns, and legends appeared. In the Hungarian Academy to-day are thirteen large volumes of these, which not only show the development of Hungarian style but also the effect of ecclesiasticism on the people. The influence of Huss is seen in the Bible translations, the philosophy of St. Thomas Aquinas in the controversial works of Nicholas Mirabilibus, while the spirit of popular devotion breathes from the published sermons of Pelbárt of Temesvár, a famous preacher of the fifteenth century.

The spirit of the Renaissance completely captivated King

Matthias, who not only called in Italian artists to build and decorate his palace, but also surrounded himself with Latin historians, orators, and poets. An army of copyists and illuminators were constantly at work for him; and his celebrated library, consisting of between six and seven thousand volumes, was regarded as a most wonderful achievement in that early age. In 1472 the printing press was introduced into Hungary, thus anticipating England by five years. Virgil was the poetic ideal of those days, and his spirit and form inspired the Hungarian votaries of the muse. Among the learned circle of King Matthias, one John of Pannonia (*Janus Pannonius*) attained European fame as a poet.

It was a sad day for all literary aspirants, as well as for the cause of literature itself when Matthias died. The splendid intellectual monument he had reared fell to ruins; the professors were dispersed, and the books carried away by the Germans and the Turks.

For 350 years after the battle of Mohács (1526) no Hungarian king occupied the throne. The three sections into which the country was split up were waging constant war with each other;<sup>1</sup> political and religious disputes, struggles between oppressors and oppressed, were a source of anarchy, uncertainty, and misery, causing the mother-tongue to languish. Yet the soul of the nation was not crushed; their trials only strengthened the Magyars' love for their language and promoted its cultivation.

The Reformation did invaluable service to the cause of literature in Hungary. Its preachers preached and sang in the native tongue, whereas the priests and teachers of the earlier faith (the Catholic) used the Latin, not only in the services of the Church but in the ordinary daily intercourse, to the detriment of the native idiom. Numbers of printing establishments were erected, books (mostly on religious controversy) were printed and sold on the markets and at the periodical fairs. Schools also were opened, three of which

<sup>1</sup> *Vide* Chapter II.

(those at Sárospatak, Debreczen, and Pápa) are flourishing to-day. To the zeal of the Reformers, the Hungarians are indebted for their first grammar, first dictionary, and first translations of foreign works into the Magyar tongue. Protestantism in Hungary was eminently patriotic, and though its adherents regarded religious propaganda as their chief work, the fundamental condition of nationalism—the cultivation of its mother-tongue—was thoroughly fulfilled. The Catholics realised that their power and influence in the country were doomed unless something was done. To counteract, therefore, the work of their opponents, the Jesuits were called in, who, with their weapons of learning, enthusiasm, and violence, sent the Protestants to the wall, condemned their most gifted clergy to prison and the galleys, and closed their churches and schools.

In this counter-reformation, Peter Pázmány, Cardinal Archbishop of Esztergom, was the moving spirit. He turned the Protestants' own weapon—the vernacular—against them; wielding the Magyar with greater force than they all, and vanquishing every opponent that dared to enter the dialectic lists against him. Thus proving that Magyarism was not incompatible with Catholicism, he became the second founder (St. Stephen being the first) of the Roman Church in Hungary. He founded, in 1635, the Jesuit University of Nagyszombat, the mother of the University of Budapest.

Transylvania alone remained firm against the assaults of Cardinal Pázmány. Her greatest Protestant, Albert Molnár, of Szencz, wandered about from one German University to another, often weary and hungry, yet besides a Hungarian grammar and dictionary, he managed to translate Calvin's works into his mother-tongue.

Count Nicolas Zrinyi, the terror of the Turks, was the contemporary of Pázmány. Though a renowned warrior—as one might have supposed more familiar with the sword than with the pen—he has left to posterity a number of poems of considerable merit.

Another contemporary, Stephen Gyöngyösi, a magistrate of Gömör, has immortalised in verse some of the stirring deeds of Hungarian history.

Protestantism being identified with national freedom, it was the constant policy of the Imperial Court to crush both. The Princes of Transylvania, Bocskay, Bethlen, and Rákóczy, raised armies in defence of Hungary and Protestantism, resulting in a more tolerable condition of affairs, in which learned men, summoned from abroad, displayed great zeal in the development of education along national and Protestant lines.

Clement Mikes was the last representative of mediæval literature, his literary utterances being directed against the tyranny of the Court of Vienna.

By degrees the insurrections against oppression lost their religious character and became purely national. Early in the eighteenth century this sentiment is expressed in poems recounting the heroic deeds of Thököly and Rákóczy. The Rákóczy Song, composed after the defeat at Trencsén, was the forerunner of Liszt's spirit-stirring Rákóczy March, which is not unknown in England.

The kindly personality of Queen Maria Theresa was a magnet drawing Hungary within the sphere of Viennese influence. Hungarian nobles broke with their family traditions, and their society became Germanised through such intimate contact with the Court. Once more Latin was in the ascendant, a History of Literature being begun in that language, but never finished. Pastor Peter Bod shook his head at Latin and sat down to write in Hungarian his *History of the Protestant Church and of Hungarian Literature*. The times were mediocre; nevertheless they produced George Besseney, Alexander Báróczy, Joseph Péczeli, Nicolas Révai, the great philologist, and Benedict Virág who wrote, besides poems, a *History of the Hungarian Centuries (Magyar Századok Története)*.

In 1790 reaction set in; the crown was brought back from



Vienna,<sup>1</sup> and the peculiar Magyar dress became fashionable throughout Hungary. Societies for the cultivation of the national language sprang up and were well supported. At this time two distinguished poets flourished: Michael Vitéz of Csokona, and Alexander Kisfaludy; the former a military officer, the latter a country squire, whose *Songs of Himfy* have secured him a niche in the temple of fame.

Another country gentleman, Francis Kazinczy, of Zemplén, who suffered a long imprisonment for his liberal opinions, besides editing periodicals, translated into Hungarian a number of the works of Cicero, Shakespeare, Molière and Goethe.

To accord mention to all Hungarian *littérateurs* justly worthy of it, would require a volume instead of a chapter; therefore I must regretfully pass over several names of nineteenth century celebrities.

In the early part of the century the Holy Alliance fettered every literary aspiration among the Hungarians. Police tyranny and espionage ruled supreme. But repression always has its rebound. In this case it produced Joseph Katona, who, with the patriotic tragedy *Bánk Bán* aroused the national spirit. Not understood at first, the work attracted no public attention, but in the 'forties (when the author slept in his quiet grave) it called forth enthusiastic applause, and with Petöfi's fiery appeals, paved the way for the events of '48.

After the death, in the thirties, of Charles Kisfaludy (brother of the Alexander previously mentioned), Michael Vörösmarty became the acknowledged leader of Hungarian literature. He edited the *Weekly Athenæum*. His *Szózat* (Appeal) alone, among his numerous beautiful poems that have been set to music, would have earned his title to an imperishable memory. His statute, adorning Gizella Square, in Budapest, bears carved on its marble pedestal the opening lines of this deeply affecting patriotic address, of which an English rendering is given:

<sup>1</sup> After the death of the Emperor Joseph II (*vide* Chapter II).



*Photographed for this work by*

*Mr. Nándor Szabó,*

**VÖRÖSMARTY MONUMENT, BUDAPEST**

# 70 .vnu ABBOLELO

*" Hazádnak rendületlenül, légy hive O Magyar ! "*

O Magyar, by thy native land  
With faithful heart abide !  
Thy cradle first, thy grave at last,  
It nursed thee and shall hide.

For thee the spacious world affords  
As home no other spot,  
Here must thou live and here must die,  
Be weal or woe thy lot.

Upon this soil thy fathers' blood  
Flowed to redeem thy claims,  
Upon this soil ten centuries  
Engrave immortal names.

Here struggled Arpád's gallant crew  
To win our fatherland,  
And here the yoke of slavery  
Was snapt by Hunyad's hand.

Here Freedom's banner, dyed with blood,  
Shone proudly from afar,  
Here fell the bravest of the brave  
In long protracted war.

It cannot be that all in vain  
Have countless tears been shed :  
Or vainly for the fatherland  
Unnumbered hearts have bled.

O Magyar, for thy country play  
A firm and faithful part ;  
She gives thee strength, and if thou fall  
She hides thee in her heart.

The spacious world doth offer thee  
For home no other spot ;  
Here must thou live, and here must die,  
Be weal or woe thy lot.

Among Vörösmarty's literary associates must be mentioned Bajza, Kölcsey, Garay, and Toldy, not omitting Andrew Fay, the Magyar Æsop, author of more than 600 fables.

We have already referred to Count Stephen Széchenyi as a reformer ;<sup>1</sup> we have now to see him as a man of letters. Finding his countrymen indifferent to high culture, which

<sup>1</sup> *Vide* Chapter IV.

alone could redeem the nation from the prejudices of an obsolete system, Széchenyi resolved to set an example of patriotic self-sacrifice. In 1825 he founded the Academy of Science, the chief object of which was to revive the Magyar tongue and liberate it from the Germanising influences of Austrian domination. The stirring words of the *greatest Hungarian* are recalled to-day, though the circumstances under which they were uttered have happily changed: *Hungary was not, but shall be! Let us not weep over the past, but labour for the future!*

"I am not here," he said, "as a great dignitary of the kingdom; but I am an opulent landowner, and if an institution be established that will develop the Magyar language and, by so doing, advance the national education of our countrymen, I will sacrifice the revenues of my estates for one year." Loud *Eljens* (Hurrahs) greeted this generous offer, after which ensued dead silence for some minutes.

Then Mr. Vay, M.P., rising, said: "The unexpected offer just made, like all great actions, stunned us for the instant; now, however, we are conscious again. I offer 20,000 florins in aid of the good work."

Then followed Count Andrásy with an offer of 10,000 florins, and Count Károlyi of six months' revenue.

These were the four original founders of the Hungarian Academy of Science in 1825. Five years later saw the noble institution an accomplished fact.

Count Stephen Széchenyi's personal contributions to the national literature consisted of a number of publications on Credit and Economic Reform.

Before the War of Freedom (1848) the three principal Hungarian novelists were Baron Nicolas Josika, Baron Joseph Eötvös, and Baron Sigismund Kemény, whose productions inspired their countrymen with hope for the future.

A National Theatre was sanctioned by the Government, for the encouragement of dramatic literature. Thus encouraged, excellent play-writers and actors made their appearance:

among them Edward Szigligeti, Mesdames Kántor and Déry, Charles Megyeri, the comedian, and Madame Jókay, the poetical reciter.

To Michael Tompa, a poor Calvinist pastor of Gömör, the Magyars are indebted for *Folk Tales and Legends*, collected from the residents around the ancient castles of the neighbourhood in which he lived and laboured. His works betray a love of nature and simplicity of heart not unlike those of Sir Walter Scott.

The impetus given by Széchenyi and his three companions to the reform movement never slackened. Indeed, its rapid progress alarmed even the one who had called it into being. The national spirit, now awakened, grasped its possibilities, and under the leadership of the heroic Louis Kossuth the Magyars resolved to put their destiny to the test. The story of the Revolution belongs to the domain of history and not to that of literature; though the reference to that stupendous event was necessary, since it gave to the Hungarians their bard of freedom, Alexander Petöfi. At the age of twenty-six this gifted poet met the glorious death he prayed for at the battle of Segesvár.

It must not, however, be inferred from this remark that Petöfi was an enthusiast for military life. On the contrary, his conscript service was most distasteful to his refined and sensitive soul, as we find in a letter he wrote from barracks to a friend: "I feel how deeply I have sunk, from the profession of a scholar, to mix with uneducated, unfeeling men, the prey of a rude tyrant."<sup>1</sup>

Yet when the supreme hour struck a few years later (1848) he roused his country with the clarion call:

"Talpra Magyar!  
Hi a hazá!"<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> *Alexander Petöfi, Poet of the Hungarian War of Independence*, by Dr. A. B. Yolland.

<sup>2</sup> *Magyars arise! Your country calls you.*

shouldered his musket and marched away with the rest, to offer all he had—his life—on the altar of Freedom, as did thousands of his heroic compatriots. He was the idol and the ideal of the youth of Hungary, an admirer of Shakespeare, some of whose works he translated, and above all an enthusiastic lover of his native land.

The greatest epic poet of Hungary was John Arany, contemporary with Petőfi, though unknown to fame at the time of the latter's death.

Maurice Jókai, whose entertaining romances are much read in England, was for fifty years one of the chief ornaments of

Magyar literature. A prolific story-writer, he has left no fewer than 250 works as a legacy to posterity, the best known being

*A Magyar Nabob*, *Black Diamonds*, and *Rab Ráby*. An excellent delineator of character, Jókai has drawn for us, with the fidelity of a master, pictures of the life that moved around him, in the towns and on the illimitable plains of the land of his birth.

From Jókai to the present day the path of literature is marked by the forms of many eminent writers—Fogarasi, the lexicographer, Paul Gyulai, the biographer of Vörösmarty and Katona, Francis Déak, whose state papers are treasures of Hungarian political literature, Charles Szász, the translator of foreign literary masterpieces, and Kálmán Mikszáth, the popular novelist, to name only a few.

The greatest Hungarian poem of modern times, and one of the chief glories of Magyar literature, is the *Tragedy of Man*,

by Imre Madách. It is related that John Arany, after reading it, saluted the author as his superior. In this work the

highest summits of poetic thought are scaled. With the sublimity of expression and the boldness of conception of a Milton, the poet seems to have beheld with his own eyes and felt with his own heart the struggles of humanity upward, toward the light of divine truth. Dramatised and produced



THE LATE PROFESSOR ARMINIUS VÁMBÉRY  
*(Died 15th September, 1913)*



70 1941  
ADMINISTRATIVE

on the Hungarian stage, *The Tragedy of Man* has evoked universal admiration from the most celebrated thinkers and teachers of the age.

The three most prominent Hungarian dramatists to-day appear to be Menyhért Lengyel, whose *Typhoon* has had immense success in New York and later in London; Francis Molnár, whose *Devil* brought him fame and fortune in America; and Alexander Bródy, author of *The Lady-Teacher*, whose realistic theatre pieces always secure crowded houses.

Among the eminent living writers—it would be impossible to name them all—may be mentioned Eugene Rákósi, editor of the *Budapesti Hírlap*; Dr. Albert Berzeviczy, president of the Academy of Sciences; Professor Bernard Alexander, a Shakespearean scholar; Count Julius Andrássy, an authority on constitutional law; Count Albert Apponyi, a keen political controversialist; Mr. Francis Kossuth (son of the famous Dictator), some time Minister of Commerce, who has written on industrial labour legislation; Dr. Antal Günter, ex-Minister of Justice, and now President of the High Courts; Professor Arminius Vámbéry, famous all over the world for his linguistic attainments and ethnographical research; and Professor Zsolt Beöthy, whose works I have drawn upon for the present chapter. Dr. Günter has the traditional merit of having risen from the lowest rung of the ladder, by dint of indomitable perseverance allied to sterling integrity of character. Even his opponents speak well of him—and in Hungary that is valuable testimony to a man's worth.

To the venerable Professor Vámbéry<sup>1</sup> belongs the peculiar distinction of having spent a long period of his life in England—at Oxford University—and enjoyed the intimate friendship of Britain's most illustrious, including Queen Victoria, King Edward, and the present reigning sovereigns. So anglophile is he that the fact has sometimes been used to reproach him

Professor  
Vámbéry.

<sup>1</sup> Since the above was printed, Professor Vámbéry's death has been announced.

with ; unjustly, however, since he declined the offer of English citizenship—the stepping-stone to power and wealth—choosing to remain faithful to the land of his birth. Professor Vámbéry, like Dr. Günter, is a “self-made man” and another striking example of what may be accomplished by force of character and that patience which, in the words of Longfellow, can

Learn to labour and to wait.

Such is in brief the story of Hungarian literature. But nearly everything genuine has its counterfeit, and there is in this case a reverse to the medal. Flooding some of the bookshops of Budapest to-day is a pseudo literature, consisting of erotic novels with suitably piquant illustrations, degrading to the taste and ruinous to the moral sense of the nation. Some of the humorous papers, too, are vulgar and even indecent, while the picture post cards exhibited in some shop-windows would not be tolerated in England. The words of Tennyson most aptly describe the state of things to which I refer :

Author, essayist, atheist, novelist, realist, rhymster—play your part,  
Paint the mortal shame of nature with the living hues of Art.  
Rip your brothers' vices open, strip your own foul passions bare ;  
Down with Reticence, down with Reverence—forward—naked—let  
them stare.  
Feed the budding rose of boyhood with the drainage of your sewer,  
Send the drain into the fountain, lest the stream should issue pure.  
Set the maiden fancies wallowing in the troughs of Zolaism,  
Forward, forward, ay, and backward, downward too into the abysm.  
Do your best to charm the worst, to lower the rising race of men :  
Have we risen from the beast ? Then back into the beast again !<sup>1</sup>

It is a pity that some concerted action is not taken to check this growing intellectual corruption which, if persisted in, must sooner or later recoil on the heads of the authorities that permit it.<sup>2</sup> Books—good ones—are as little read in

<sup>1</sup> *Locksley Hall Sixty Years After.*

<sup>2</sup> The question of *Legal Measures against Immoral Literature* was discussed at the International Publishers' Congress held at Budapest in June this year, when important resolutions on the subject were adopted.

Hungary to-day as newspapers are read too much ; though happily there are signs of improvement in this respect, thanks to the praiseworthy efforts of a small band of young authors of the right sort. Ida Ferency's stories are among the few that can safely be put into the hands of young people ; many of them are reminiscent of Maria Edgeworth.

Between thirty and forty daily papers are published in Budapest, the most extensively circulated being the *Pesti Hírlap* (originally founded by Louis Kossuth), *The Press*. *Budapesti Hírlap*, *Az Ujság*, *Pester Lloyd*, and *Neues Pester Journal*. To the quality of the news that these and the rest supply little exception can be taken, but it is to be regretted that more discrimination is not shown in the matter of the advertisements. Many of the latter have a truly oriental flavour, and would bring a blush to the cheek of any self-respecting Briton able to understand them.

In Hungary, as in England, the Press is supposed to be free and unfettered, yet the paper attacking the Government must look out : it is not uncommon for a newspaper that has so offended to be forbidden to be sold in the streets and at the railway-stations. As another writer has justly observed, any attempt to limit the freedom of the Press invariably leads to grave danger.<sup>1</sup> The Press being one of the great safety valves of the nation, to sit upon it is naturally to court explosion.

Of magazine literature there are the organs of the various churches and societies, as well as those representing nothing in particular. The *Vasárnapí Ujság* (Sunday News) is one of the best illustrated weekly popular journals ; the *Huszadik Század* (Twentieth Century), edited by Mr. Oskar Jászi, is the organ of a small band of outspoken politicians who are " spreading the light " ; the *Budapesti Szépmű* (organ of the Academy of Science), edited jointly by Dr. Berzeviczy and

<sup>1</sup> To prosecute editors and journalists on account of libellous or obscene matter is, however, quite a different thing.

Professor Beöthy; and the *Társadalomtudományi Széle* (Social Science Review), edited by Professor Eugene Gaál, are treasure-houses of current knowledge respecting scientific and social movements at home and abroad; while two English illustrated journals, *Hungary* and the *Hungarian Spectator* (organ of the British-American Literary Society) form connecting links between the country and English-speaking people who have visited or who are in any way interested in the land of the Magyars.

Native journalism is not accorded such an honourable place as in England. Hungarian journalists are badly paid in comparison with their English *confères*, and the esteem they enjoy is in proportion to their low emoluments. This is a great drawback to the development of literary talent among the poor; and it may be that many a budding Shakespeare or Milton in this country is, owing to his poverty,

. . . . . *born to blush unseen*  
*And waste his sweetness on the desert air.*

Vörösmarty, Tompa, Petöfi, and Arany were all fearfully poor, and but for their dogged pertinacity would never have secured public recognition of their glorious talents even after their deaths. They were the exceptions proving the rule.

Pure wholesome literature does not to-day in Hungary offer sufficient advantage and reward to cause many to desire to cultivate it as a means of livelihood; so that, generally speaking, the most prominent Hungarian writers of to-day are men and women of private means, or of incomes derived from other professions, who write, not for gain, but either for the love of literature or the laudable desire to instruct and uplift their fellows. Their efforts will in due time, we feel sure, have their recompense in the raising of the national literary tone to the place it formerly occupied, and, with an enlightened public opinion, making a clean sweep of the debasing prints that pollute the minds of the rising generation.



**HIS EXCELLENCY DR. ALBERT BERZEVICZY, M.P.**  
*(Sometime Minister for Public Instruction ; now President  
of the Academy of Sciences)*

TO VINE  
ABSTRACTS

## CHAPTER VII

### RELIGION AND EDUCATION

THE religion of the original Magyars was a kind of monotheism. Like the Druids of ancient Britain, they erected their altars on the hill-tops, in the forest glades, and shady groves. Their favourite sacrificial victim was a white horse. Their Good Spirit was *Isten*,<sup>1</sup> their Evil Spirit *Ördög*, by which names they are known to-day in the Magyar tongue.

Early  
Religion.

Believing in the immortality of the soul, they encouraged no mourning over their dead, regarding a relative's departure from this life rather as an occasion for feasting and merriment, to celebrate the deceased's entrance into a better world. They usually buried their dead by the side of a river, as though to facilitate their passage to the spirit-land.

Their priests were also the counsellors, poets, physicians, and philosophers of the nation. The Hungarian historian, Horváth, says : " In their festivals and at the sacrifices they sang heroic songs, accompanied by the harp, to awaken the love of glory in the people, to incite them to courage and fortitude, or to soften their savage moods. The people paid their priests profound respect, but declined to allow them to violate or curtail the popular liberties, as the priests had done in so many other Eastern lands." <sup>2</sup>

When King Stephen undertook to bring his subjects into the Christian fold, he found his task beset with difficulties. They argued that the old faith was as good as the new one ; the latter was certainly more complicated and speculative, while those who professed it were more quarrelsome and uncharitable than themselves ; moreover, they were neither more moral nor more honourable. To abandon their ancient

<sup>1</sup> Compare the Persian *Izdan*.

<sup>2</sup> *Geschichte der Ungarn*.



faith was in their eyes to abandon their dead ancestors who had professed it, and that were an act of disloyalty.

As in the case of other heathen nations in the days when the Christian faith was young, attempts were made to coerce the Magyars into an acceptance of it, and much bloodshed resulted. Hardly by that means, however, was the conversion of the Hungarians finally effected, but rather by the noble character of the monarch himself. King Stephen was as upright and virtuous as he was pious and patriotic. He despatched Christian missionaries over the length and breadth of his dominions, and the people's love for their monarch constrained them to examine the new faith more closely than at first—with the desired result.

From the eleventh century till the Reformation the Hungarians bore undivided allegiance to the see of Rome. The

**The Greek and  
the Roman  
Churches.**

Slavs of Hungary, however, evinced a preference for the doctrines of the Greek Church, whose patriarch had his seat at Constantinople. Sending a deputation to the Greek Emperor Basil, asking the monarch to intercede with the patriarch that religious teachers might be sent to them, their request was complied with, and the Slav provinces of Lower Hungary were, in the early part of the thirteenth century, received into the pale of the Greek Church. The conversion of the Russians following soon afterwards, nearly all the Slavs in Europe, from the Baltic to the Bosphorus, and from Bohemia to the Euxine, professed Christianity as taught by the Greek communion.

The Roman pontiffs could not view with equanimity the loss of the support of these rich lands; while on the other hand, the Greek patriarchs on various occasions made proposals for reunion with the Western branch of the Church. But whenever the schemes put forward were on the point of being accepted the lower Greek clergy would rise *en masse* in uncompromising resistance and the negotiations would consequently be abruptly broken off.

Individual priests and small groups of clergy there were, however, who went over from the Greek to the Roman allegiance. They were not required to abjure any of their distinguishing doctrines or ceremonies. Such were, and still are, known in Hungary as the United, or Greek Oriental (*Görög Keleti*) Church. They anoint the sick, baptise by immersion, administer communion in both kinds, and the clergy marry.

It may safely be said that the Roman Catholics of Hungary have never been such docile children of the Church as have those of most other Catholic countries. They have always contended for the right of private judgment, and the papal system has apparently often been too arbitrary to suit their temper. Count Julius Andrassy says: "The Hungarians played a comparatively small part in the Crusades, and they managed to remain at peace even with the pagan Cumanians. They never developed that zeal in the persecution of heretics which the Pope expected of them. In spite of the most urgent requests to the contrary, they tolerated the Jews in the country and did them no harm."<sup>1</sup> And when the dogma of papal infallibility was promulgated in 1871 only a single Hungarian bishop<sup>2</sup> could be found bold enough to publish the declaration in his diocese, and he for his temerity was compelled promptly to resign his see. With a race of people of such independent spirit, it was small wonder that the doctrines of the Reformation found many adherents, and that Protestantism took firm root and flourished. The Magyar is passionately tenacious of his individual liberty; though it must be admitted that, unless the subject be a person of high culture and strength of character, individual liberty is not an unmixed blessing.

The King of Hungary is the head of the Catholic Church

<sup>1</sup> *Development of Hungarian Constitutional Liberty*, p. 25.

<sup>2</sup> Bishop Jekelfalussy of Székesfehérvár. Haynald, Archbishop of Kalocsa, too, stoutly refused to accept the dogma of papal infallibility at the Œcumenical Council of 1870.

within his dominions. Being a layman, however, his ecclesiastical authority is delegated and divided among the three archbishops: the Archbishop of Esztergom<sup>1</sup> and Prince-Primate (Dr. John Csernoch), the Archbishop of Kalocsa (Dr. Glattfelder), and the Archbishop of Eger (Dr. Szmrecsány). Under these are fifteen diocesan bishops, a greater number of titular bishops, 260 canons, one arch-abbot (Hypolite Fehér, of Pannonhalma), 150 abbots, and the rank and file of the regular and secular clergy in their thousands.

The Greek Church in Hungary is governed by two bishops (who in their turn are controlled by the Roman Catholic Prince-Primate), eleven canons, six honorary canons, and upwards of a thousand ordinary priests. The United, or Greek Oriental Church, more numerous than the so-called "Independent" body, is under the spiritual—and in some respects even the temporal—jurisdiction of the Patriarch of Karlocza (Dr. Lucian Bogdanovics), who, like the Roman Pontiff, is accorded the official title of "His Holiness."

At the last religious census the numbers of the adherents of the various confessions were as follows :

Roman Catholics . . . . .	9,919,918	51.5 per cent.
Greek Oriental . . . . .	2,815,713	14.6 "
Reformed . . . . .	2,441,142	12.7 "
Greek Catholics . . . . .	1,854,143	9.6 "
Evangelical . . . . .	1,288,942	6.7 "
Jews . . . . .	851,378	4.4 "
Unitarians . . . . .	68,568	.4 "
Baptists and others . . . . .	14,780	.1 "

These figures include Croatia-Slavonia, where the inhabitants are about evenly divided between the Roman and the Greek communions. In Hungary Proper (*i.e.*, exclusive of Croatia-Slavonia) the Roman Catholics are in the proportion of 71.3 per cent. The adherents of the two Greek churches comprise nearly one-fourth, and those of the three Protestant confessions about one-fifth of the total population. The Baptist community, though small, is exceedingly active, and

<sup>1</sup> The *Strigonium* of the Romans.

enjoys the assistance and support of the brethren in Germany and Great Britain. A still smaller body are the *Nazarones*, who resemble the Quakers in many respects—especially in their rejection of forms and ceremonies and their uncompromising attitude towards military service. As by law every man not physically incapacitated must undergo a period of training in some branch of the Army and fight if required to do so by the authorities, it was inevitable that such a religious body as the Nazarenes should have to endure suffering for conscience sake. The Hungarians are, however, a humane people, and this has been shown in recent measures for letting down the Nazarenes as easily as possible: so that nowadays every *bona fide* member of that body when with the colours performs only non-combatant's duties, assists the ambulance or medical corps, in accordance with his education and abilities.

The Hungarian Government keeps a controlling hand on the clergy of all denominations, as it does, indeed, on everything else. The Minister for Public Instruction is also *Minister for Religion*, and it is an unwritten law that this minister must always be a Roman Catholic. (In the rare instances in which he has been a Protestant, his rule has been temporary only, until a suitable member of the predominating church could be found to fill the post.) No appointment to any clerical office in any church can be made without his sanction.<sup>1</sup> The Catholic priest, the Protestant pastor, and the Jewish rabbi are practically on the footing of State employés, the amount of their salaries, emoluments, and pension allowances being fixed by the Government and paid out of a fund raised by a tax *per capitem*. Every person is expected to subscribe himself as adhering to one of the first seven religious bodies mentioned on page 212 (the Baptists and others not being legally recognised), which is empowered

<sup>1</sup> Exceptions are, however, the bishops and chief dignitaries of the Catholic Church, who are appointed by the King in concert with the Pope of Rome.

by law to tax him, and to distrain on his goods in default of payment within a prescribed period. To understand better the force of this, let us suppose that the English reader has no particular religious convictions and never attends any place of worship (as is sometimes the case with Hungarians), but being requested to write himself down as of some persuasion he puts *Congregationalist* on his "identity form" and thinks no more about the matter. By and by he receives a demand note for the payment of, say, £1 10s. to the funds of the Congregational Union. He is astonished. "I never trouble these people, never go to their churches, I receive nothing from them," he says; and the document is consigned to the waste-paper basket. A fortnight or so later a collector calls in person, and should the citizen remain obstinate, the collector will proceed to appraise certain articles of his furniture as a preliminary to removing them if the amount be not paid within eight days from the date of that visit.<sup>1</sup>

It will now be interesting to observe the *quality*, from the standpoint of culture, of the adherents of the various officially recognised religious bodies. According to **The Religious Denominations.** the official report of the Hungarian Government Statistics' Department, the proportion of the inhabitants of Hungary who, being upwards of six years of age, can read and write, is as follows:

1. Jews . . . . .	83.03 per cent.
2. Evangelical . . . . .	82.26 "
3. Reformed . . . . .	75.52 "
4. Roman Catholics . . . . .	68.26 "
5. Unitarians . . . . .	64.95 "
6. Greek Catholics . . . . .	23.86 "
7. Greek Oriental . . . . .	20.83 "

The Jews of Hungary are enthusiasts for education and, as we see, stand at the top of the list. Their zeal in this respect

<sup>1</sup> Such was an early experience of the author, who describing himself as an *English Protestant* was erroneously classed with the adherents of the native Reformed Church. The error was, however, rectified before any harm had been done.

is so well recognised that in the event of a person being mentioned as having acquired any exceptional distinction in the realm of science or art, it seems natural in this country to ask: "*Is he a Jew?*"

The Protestants follow next in order of merit; the *lowest* being the adherents of the Greek communions, who, like ignorant people generally, are very superstitious. In Budapest, however, coming under the cultural influences afforded by the metropolis, their condition is not nearly so degraded as in the country.

An examination of the various religious denominations according to the language is instructive. In Hungary Proper 65 per cent. of the adherents of the *Occidental* Christian churches (those numbered 2, 3, 4, and 5 in the list) accept *Magyar* as their mother-tongue, whereas only 6·9 per cent. of the *Oriental* Christian churches (numbered 6 and 7) do so. Taking each church separately, their proportions of *Magyar*-speaking adherents are as follows:

Unitarians . . . . .	99·09 per cent. <sup>1</sup>
Reformed . . . . .	98·24 " <sup>1</sup>
Roman Catholics . . . . .	60·50 "
Evangelical . . . . .	28·56 "
(38·73 per cent. being Slovaks and 32·71 per cent. Germans.)	
Greek Catholics . . . . .	13·39 per cent.
(57·83 per cent. being Roumanians, 23·26 per cent. Ruthenians, and 5·52 per cent. Slovaks.)	
Greek Oriental . . . . .	1·45 per cent.
(77·99 per cent. being Roumanians and 20·56 per cent. Servians.)	

Now let us take the state of education in Hungary according to nationality. Of persons over six years of age who can read and write are:

Germans . . . . .	79·63 per cent.
Magyars . . . . .	72·52 "
Slovaks . . . . .	60·36 "
Servians . . . . .	48·38 "
Roumanians . . . . .	23·88 "
Ruthenians . . . . .	17·78 "

<sup>1</sup> Thus the Unitarians and the Reformed Church are pre-eminently Magyar bodies.

Thus the most advanced are the *Germans*. It should be explained, in fairness to the Magyars, that on the Great Plain, inhabited almost exclusively by them, the Education. population is so widely scattered that it is next to impossible for the children to attend school. The State is, however, endeavouring to remedy this evil to some extent by establishing "homestead" schools with itinerant teachers.

To form an idea of the educational progress of the Nationalities, let the reader compare the foregoing percentages with those for the year 1880 :

Germans . . . . .	68.25 per cent.
Magyars . . . . .	53.56 "
Slovaks . . . . .	39.27 "
Servians . . . . .	37.25 "
Roumanians . . . . .	11.01 "
Ruthenians . . . . .	8.64 "

Attendance at school is compulsory in Hungary between the ages of six and fifteen years. The following table shows at a glance the present number of *elementary* schools in Hungary Proper, with the aggregate number of teachers and pupils attending :

Kind of Elementary School.	Number of Schools.	Number of Teachers.	Number of Pupils.
Roman Catholic . . . . .	5,305	9,431	710,779
State . . . . .	2,744	5,291	316,005
Parish . . . . .	1,473	4,314	265,094
Reformed . . . . .	1,903	3,110	204,822
Greek Oriental . . . . .	1,723	2,320	148,162
Evangelical . . . . .	1,338	2,317	187,514
Greek Catholic . . . . .	1,963	2,207	132,574
Jewish . . . . .	466	903	35,594
Private . . . . .	308	(No data)	19,540
Proprietary . . . . .		(No data)	2,096
Unitarian . . . . .	36	301	2,021

The schools of the two Greek churches are badly staffed, many of them having only a single teacher each. As already

pointed out, the adherents of these religious bodies are on a very low plane as regards education and culture.

State schools were not established in Hungary till 1875, and in the following year they numbered 125 only, with 237 teachers and some 25,000 pupils. To-day the cost of maintaining the State schools exceeds half a million pounds sterling. The State assists the non-State schools also to a similar extent.

The City schools, not mentioned in the table, play a very important part in the educational life of Budapest. They number 385, accommodating 61,529 pupils—25,450 boys and 36,079 girls—and costing £350,000 annually, about a third of which sum is contributed by the State.

Of Teachers' Training Colleges there are 89—49 for men and 40 for women; 27 State-maintained, the rest denominational. The students attending these number 2,540 men and 5,408 women. The predominating number of women contemplating a scholastic career is an unhealthy sign.

Of Secondary schools there are two kinds—the Gymnasias, for the study of the humanities, classics, history, and literature; and the Modern schools (*Rediskola*), for modern languages, mathematics, and the natural sciences. In the former category are 178, staffed by 3,341 teachers, and attended by 54,199 pupils; in the latter 32, with 710 teachers and 9540 pupils. The proportions of these pupils according to nationality are: Magyar, 78·89 per cent.; German, 9·81 per cent.; Roumanian, 6·13 per cent.; Slovak, 2·84 per cent.; Croatian-Servian, 1·75 per cent.; Ruthenian, 0·14 per cent., others, 0·44 per cent.

With regard to the educational establishments of University rank, Veszprém rejoiced in a University College even in the remote period of the Arpád kings; and Pécs also in the year 1367. Under the influence of the Renaissance in the reign of King Matthias several colleges were raised to the status of Universities. In Hungary Proper there are 59 such establishments; two universities of science, one technical



university (polytechnic), 10 academies of law, and 46 theological colleges. Government sanction has just been given for the foundation of two new universities, at Debreczen and Pozsony respectively. Budapest University has upwards of 7,000 students, that of Kolozsvár about 2,500. The Polytechnic at Budapest, has about 1,400 students, including a considerable proportion of women. At the two universities of sciences the overwhelming majority of the attenders are law students, while the medical students number upwards of 1,000. At the Polytechnic half the students are enrolled in the department of mechanical engineering, the other half being divided between the chemistry and architecture departments. Outside of Hungary Proper—at Zág-ráb (better known to the English as Agram)—there is another University; though the teaching medium there is the *Croatian* language.

University extension has not yet become general in Hungary, though the progress made in that respect during the past few years is very encouraging. Among the agencies working in the cause may be mentioned the Urania Scientific Theatre and Society, the Queen Elizabeth Popular Academy, the People's University College, and the Free Lyceum. During last year the publications of these five institutions exceeded half a million, and the number of students who availed themselves of the opportunities of self-improvement were nearly as many. Of institutions devoted to the teaching of art, are several schools of painting, the Theatrical Academy and the National Academy of Music—all in Budapest—while there are others also at Kolozsvár, Debreczen, Zág-ráb, and the chief provincial towns.

Museums and libraries are naturally an important factor in public education, and such institutions abound in the capital and principal cities. The Hungarian National Museum at Budapest, founded in 1802, is remarkable for its antiquities, natural history and ethnographical collections; as well as for its library, the most valuable in Hungary, consisting of 1,420,000 volumes and manuscripts, and the



*Photographed for this work by*

*Mr. Nándor Szabó.*

**THE NATIONAL MUSEUM, BUDAPEST**

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ABSTRACT

most ancient documents in the Hungarian language. Worthy of mention also are the Anthropological Museum, Commercial Museum, Technological Museum, Museum of Industrial Art (famed for its magnificent specimens of carpets, old chasubles, goldsmith's work, and rare porcelain), the Agricultural Museum, Geological Museum, the Academy Library (200,000 volumes), the University Library (400,000 volumes in all languages, including the chief English works), the Polytechnic Library, and the Municipal Library, with its unrivalled collection of works on social science. These are all in Budapest ; many of the principal towns have institutions scarcely inferior to those of the metropolis.

Hungary, with her 20,000,000 of inhabitants, ranks to-day next after Germany and France for her cultural means and the earnest efforts she puts forth in the interests of popular enlightenment.

## CHAPTER VIII

### PHILANTHROPIC INSTITUTIONS

FROM educational establishments to philanthropic and charitable institutions is not a far cry, especially with regard

**The Children** to those which concern themselves with the welfare of the children.

It is doubtful whether there is any country in the world where the children are taken so much care of as in Hungary. Indeed, the State has constituted itself the "over-parent" of every child born and living within its jurisdiction, so that every Hungarian boy and girl if not healthy and happy ought to be. In their interest the State has, directly and indirectly, provided no less than 1,631 infant homes, 230 infant asylums, and 734 summer homes all over the land. Some of these establishments are distinctly State, county or municipal, while others are denominational in character; in all cases, however, the State controls and insists on the fulfilment of the prescribed duties towards the children. "Baby farming" is impossible, as no private person may set up an infant home.

It would not, perhaps, interest the general reader to quote the enactments of the law, which require every municipality and community to make adequate provision for its children. Suffice it to say that all the homes are fitted up in the most modern style, comprising a hall for games, another for work, dormitories, a playground with a covered shed, and suitable quarters for the staff.

For the purpose of child protection Hungary is divided into seventeen districts, each of which has its Children's Court, whose business is to see that each child is properly cared for. The moment that the court receives notice that a child is being ill-treated or neglected, or exposed to immoral

influences, it warns its parents or guardian of the penalties of such conduct. If a father neglects his child he is threatened with deprivation of the rights of parentage unless he mends his ways. This deprivation will not, however, relieve him of the cost of the child's maintenance. If a father be caught in the act of ill-treating his child, it is at once taken from him and placed in the district home. Abandoned infants, waifs and strays, and the children of parents who are in hospital or prison, are also sent to the home, and the circumstances reported to the court. This tribunal has authority to inflict punishment on all convicted of wrong-doing towards children. On the other hand, parents too poor to keep a child may make it over to the authorities to be placed in a home, the State taking all responsibility for its maintenance and education.

Only about 5 per cent. of the children sent to the homes remain any length of time therein. The bulk of them, after a period of medical attention, are boarded out with peasant families in villages selected for their salubrity. These villages become, in effect, children's colonies under the superintendance of the directors of the district homes. These gentlemen keep a sharp eye on the foster-parents and relieve them of their charges if they fail to comply with the conditions under which they are permitted to bring up the children. To deprive a peasant couple of their foster-child is a real punishment, as the pay they receive on its account forms an acceptable addition to their income, to say nothing of the loss of honour involved. If after three years the treatment of the child by its foster-parents is certified by the State inspector to have been satisfactory the couple receive a pecuniary gift accompanied by a letter signed by the Minister of the Interior. These rewards are naturally coveted and are an incentive to the fulfilment of duty.

There are at present nearly 40,000 children under the guardianship of the State, and most of them are of the class that would have to be taken care of either by the nation or

by public charity. When Parliament introduced its Children's Protection Bill in 1891, its opposers argued that its being passed would promote the increase of illegitimate children. The prediction has, however, been falsified, as the illegitimate birth-rate has *decreased* by 7 per cent., while the death-rate also among this class of children has been appreciably reduced.

The Patriotic League for the Protection of Children (*Országos Gyermekvédelő Liga*), whose president is Count Ladislas Széchenyi (husband of Gladys Vanderbilt), is a State-controlled charitable institution. Besides a State grant and the assistance of its wealthy patrons and members, its funds are augmented by general charity. Following the example of the Salvation Army, it makes street collections on two consecutive days in every year. In this laudable work the young ladies of some of the most aristocratic families assist. Each is appointed to her post, where she remains with brief intervals from morning till night, and, with such wiles as the fair sex know so well how to employ, induces a transfer of silver and nickel (and occasionally gold) coins from the pockets of the by-passers to her collecting-box.

At the present time the League has upwards of 50,000 members, and its activities include every phase of child protection from earliest infancy till latest youth. Deaf, dumb, blind, deformed, and sick children it sends to suitable institutions and resorts; affords such education as the condition of each child renders it capable of receiving; and, in the case of specially talented children, even places opportunities for higher education in their way.

The League also, like the State, boards out many children, placing them under the supervision of the physicians attached to its asylums or homes. It has six asylums, in Budapest, Rákoskeresztur, Sopron, Szeged, Szaloncza, and Nagy-Szöllös respectively. In these institutions the boys are taught handicrafts and the rudiments of agriculture and

horticulture, after which they are placed with tradesmen and farmers for practical experience, while still being under the League's care and control. The girls are trained for domestic service.

Should a child prove incorrigible—and this happens only in a small percentage of cases—he is transferred to one of the State reformatories.

Besides paying the nurse's and doctor's fees in cases of confinement among the poor, the League further supplies medicines and bandages gratis to all in need.

The majority of the public hospitals of Hungary are equipped with all the requirements of modern hygiene as well as with the latest scientific appliances. Unfortunately their number is insufficient for the population, there being only some 450 in the whole country, with an aggregate of 40,000 beds. Budapest is, however, well provided for in this respect, there being in the city upwards of sixty hospitals, dispensaries, sanatoria, and medical institutes—public and private—at the service of the sick and afflicted; an average of one establishment to every 16,000 inhabitants.

It would be uninteresting to enumerate them all, but a brief reference to the principal ones may be acceptable.

The oldest and largest hospital in Budapest is that known as the *St. Rokus Hospital*, which has an interesting history.

To commemorate the visitation of the plague in 1711, and as a thank-offering on the part of the survivors, they subscribed to a fund for building a votive chapel dedicated to St. Rokus.<sup>1</sup> In connection with this, a little later, an asylum for destitute old people was erected, and this edifice became, in 1796, the hospital. In 1860 it was enlarged to its present dimensions. The hospital has no less than 1,623 beds for the use of patients. It treats disease and ailments of every kind, and possesses a Röntgen laboratory.

*St. Stephen's Hospital* was built in 1885 at a cost of £118,360.

<sup>1</sup> Fr., *St. Roche*.



It comprises nineteen separate buildings occupying an extensive park, eight of which are used for the accommodation of patients. This institution also has a Röntgen installation. Four hundred and thirty-six beds are here available for those needing them.

*St. Ladislas's Hospital* for infectious diseases was built in 1893 at a cost of £53,250. It consists of sixteen separate buildings, eight of which, containing 224 beds, are for the accommodation of patients.

*St. Gerard's Hospital*, adjoining St. Ladislas's, was inaugurated in 1898 and enlarged in 1904. It has 200 beds.

All four of these hospitals are under the direction of Baron Kálmán Müller, the most eminent of Hungarian physicians.

The institution originally known as the *Hospital for Nervous Diseases* has recently been officially designated the *Third Medical Clinic*, and placed under the direction of the eminent nerve specialist, Baron Alexander Korányi. It contains 128 beds. On the ground-floor is a commodious lecture-hall for medical students, with all the latest scientific appliances for radioscopic demonstrations.

Ever since the eighteenth century the study of eye diseases (ophthalmology) has occupied the special attention of the medical faculty of Budapest, their attention being first drawn to its importance by a Frenchman, Baron de St. Idelfont, who came to lecture on the subject and, as it proved, to settle in the Hungarian capital. In 1802 a professorship of the science was created in connection with the Budapest University. To-day the chair of ophthalmology is worthily filled by a comparatively young man, Dr. Emil Grósz, who is also director of the *Ophthalmological Clinic*, one of the finest edifices devoted to the healing art in Hungary.

Erected in 1907 at a cost of £37,500, it is a large quadrangular building, situated practically in the centre of the city. The entrance to its dispensary department, standing higher than the street level, is approached by an inclined path, obviating the necessity for the patients, blind, or nearly blind, ascending

steps, while for reaching the upper floors electric lifts with attendants are provided. This institution has eighty-four beds. Last year 1,306 in-patients and 17,610 out-patients were treated.

*St. John's Hospital*, pleasantly situated at the foot of the Suabian hill, treats diseases of every kind, and has a special department for tuberculosis. On the same estate is a Convalescent Home for patients of the hospital, which owes its existence to the munificence of Baron Wodianer.

The *old St. John's Hospital*, more than a mile distant from the new one, dates from 1820. It is now used only in the event—somewhat rare—of the new establishment being full.

*The Adèle Brody Hospital for Children* was founded in 1893 by Mr. Sigismund Brody, a Jewish gentleman, as a memorial of his deceased wife. Thirteen large rooms contain altogether 114 beds, besides which there are sixteen single chambers each containing a bed and a child's cot. This excellent institution treats an average of 1,500 in-patients and 16,000 out-patients annually.

*The Jewish Hospital*, founded and supported entirely by the Hungarian Israelite community, was erected in 1837 and rebuilt, with considerable extensions, in 1889. It has 200 beds.

*The Polyclinical Dispensary Hospital* is maintained by an association of that name for the dual purpose of assisting the indigent sick and the advancement of medical science. In the institution are fifty beds; and upwards of 50,000 cases (in and out-patients) are treated annually. The entire staff render gratuitous service, their reward consisting in the valuable experience they obtain.

A reference to the *Red Cross Hospital* must not be omitted. Situated in one of the most salubrious suburbs of the city, at a height of 135 feet above the level of the Danube, it consists of sixteen separate mansions, besides a number of offices, in the midst of beautifully laid-out gardens. The

hospital proper claims eight of these mansions, the rest consisting of private rooms furnished with the acme of comfort. The institution contains 680 beds.

The Hungarian branch of the International Red Cross Society was founded in 1879. Besides the service it renders in war-time, it is active also in peace and contributes to the happiness and well-being of the civil community in a multitude of ways. It is a very wealthy organisation, owning considerable property in buildings and land; it has a reserve fund of £250,000, to which must be added the annual contributions of its 37,357 members. The president of the central committee is Count Andrew Csekonics.

Budapest being a cosmopolitan city on the high-road to the Orient, experiences the effects of the white slave traffic to no small degree. This terrible evil, the combating of which gives scope for the exercise of the noblest qualities of womanhood, has found valiant adversaries here. Miss Emma Dessewffy spares neither herself nor her wealth in the cause of enlightening and protecting unfortunate members of her sex against the cunning and violence of debased men. Practically at her own expense this lady has opened two "homes" for young fallen women who desire to return to the path of virtue. Other zealous workers in the same useful sphere are Miss Augusta Rosenberg and Miss Rosa Latinovitz, the latter being the representative in Budapest of the National Vigilance Association.

It would be impossible within the limits of this little work to mention in detail a tithe of the numerous philanthropic institutions and charitable organisations of Hungary. With her 108 orphanages, sixteen deaf and dumb asylums, and five institutes for the blind, provided by the State and supported by the generosity of many large-hearted men and women within her borders, this country ranks second to none in the world for her noble efforts in the service of humanity.

DAY OF  
CALIFORNIA



*Photographed for this work by*

**THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, FROM THE FISHER BASTION**  
*(Statue of John Hunyady in the foreground)*

*Mr. Nándor Szabó.*

TO VIMU  
ABHIGYANAM

## CHAPTER IX

### THE CITY OF BUDAPEST

**TOPOGRAPHICALLY** Budapest, the Hungarian metropolis—after London, Paris, and Vienna, the largest city in Europe as regards superficial area,—consists of two parts, Buda and Pest, separated from each other by the “blue Danube’s” broad ribbon, and slenderly joined up again by six threads in the form of bridges.

Buda is set on a hill, its foreground broken by the precipitous slopes of the Blocksberg, or Mount St. Gerard. Mirrored in the calm river, the dismantled citadel that crowns it could, had it speech, tell a tale of struggle alternately of Magyar against Turk and Austrian equal to the most stirring deeds recorded in history or fiction. Close by is the steep hill dominated by the Royal Palace, with its hanging gardens, and embellished with flights of ornamental stone stairs, buttresses, pilasters, embrasures, arcades, columns, and turrets, culminating in the ancient Coronation Church of St. Matthias. Originally built and dedicated to Our Lady by King Béla IV in the thirteenth century, it was rebuilt in Gothic style in the fifteenth. During the Turkish occupation, when the Cross had perforce to hide before the conquering Crescent, the stately fane was used as a mosque. The background is in autumn a gorgeous blaze of many-hued hills dotted with pretty villas of light blue, white, yellow, and green.

Standing on one of the bridges that span the noble river, or on the terrace of the Houses of Parliament, in the glow of sunset and lifting the eyes towards Buda, the spectator is spellbound by a scene of panoramic splendour unequalled anywhere in the world. Then when darkness has fallen, the

myriad twinkling lights that line the river-banks and silhouette the contour of the hills give a genuine touch of romance to the scene.

Pest is quite flat, spreading out fan-shape from the *Belváros*, or inner city. Its most beautiful building is St. Stephen's Cathedral, in the Renaissance style, the mere empty shell of which cost £320,000, to say nothing of the enormous sums that have been spent on the interior decoration. Though it has none of the vastness of Gothic cathedrals, or the spaciousness of basilicas like St. John of Lateran or Santa Maria Maggiore, majesty exhales from its façades, and the exquisite lines of its cupola and campanile form a veritable epic in stone. Its design is peculiar : massive, columned, arched, balustraded, sculptured, sublimely and solemnly rich in ornament.

Other noteworthy edifices abound in Pest, some of which—the Houses of Parliament,<sup>1</sup> hospitals,<sup>2</sup> art galleries, museums,<sup>3</sup> and public libraries<sup>4</sup>—have already been referred to, while still others will be given attention in subsequent chapters of this work.

The baths and curative mineral springs of Budapest are too world-famous to be passed over in silence. They were known for centuries to the conquering nations that from time to time settled on the banks of the Danube. Romans and Turks at their respective periods left their mark in the form of bathing establishments around the springs, some of which to-day have lost nothing of their original beauty, while the healing power of their waters is more widely recognised than ever. Their fame has extended to

Regions Cæsar never knew,  
Where his eagles never flew.

Portions of the Imperial and the Rudas baths date from the Turkish period, the latter having been founded in 1560

<sup>1</sup> *Vide* Chapter V.

<sup>2</sup> *Vide* Chapter VIII.

<sup>3</sup> *Vide* Chapter X.

<sup>4</sup> *Vide* Chapter VII.

by Mustapha Pasha, at that time Governor of Buda. The Rascian bath was elevated to royal dignity by King Matthias. This, with the Imperial and the St. Luke's baths, are run by private enterprise. The Margaret Island baths are State property. An ideal resort, rejoicing in umbrageous woodlands smiling flower-beds, and a murmuring cascade, this Eden is refreshing to the eye and soothing to the nerves. On the Pest side is the Artesian bath, originally built at a cost of £125,000. Its recent extension and embellishment have cost nearly £100,000 more. The Sáros (or Mud) bath lies at the foot of Mount St. Gerard. The Municipality has now in course of erection on its site a palatial establishment which is expected to be the "last word" on baths.

The Hungarian metropolis has experienced many trials and vicissitudes. The soil on which it stands has witnessed the successive dominion of Celts, Romans, Huns, Avars, and Slavs, before the Magyars came to take possession of it. It has been the scene of memorable historic events; and if no attempt has been made till recent years to create a great city upon it, the omission has been due solely to unsatisfactory political conditions.

The peoples of antiquity recognised the advantages afforded by its geographical situation. Under the name of *Ak-ink* (the place of abundant waters) the Celts founded there, before the Christian era, a town which the Romans, in the second century after Christ, called *Aquincum*. The place soon acquired considerable importance. The Emperor Hadrian raised it to the rank of a municipality, and Septimus Severus to that of a colony. A bridge-of-boats connected it with *Contra-Aquincum*<sup>1</sup> on the left bank of the Danube, thus forming a bulwark against the incursions of the barbarians who threatened the Roman Empire on the east. When Diocletian sought to preserve the tottering empire by sub-division, Pannonia fell to Valerius, who named the country Valeria, with Aquincum as capital. To-day may be

<sup>1</sup> To-day called Ujpest.



seen on the site the remains of the amphitheatre, capable of holding 20,000 spectators ; while scattered around are the remains of dwellings destroyed many centuries ago : broken columns, ruins of baths, of temples—notably of one in honour of Mithras, of pagan altars, of a theatre with accommodation for 8,000, and sarcophagi crumbling to dust ; all of which tend to show that Aquincum must have been an important city of at least 60,000 inhabitants.

The brief supremacy of the Huns, Goths, and Lombards passed away leaving scarcely a trace behind ; the same with the domination of the Avars and Slavs. The only souvenir the last-named have left is the name of the city of *Pest*, which, in the Slav tongue, signifies “oven,” as does also the name “*Ofen*,” given by the Germans to the city of Buda on the opposite shore. These designations preserve the remembrance of the brick-works and lime-kilns formerly existing in both places.

When the Magyars appeared, the region of which Budapest now forms the centre witnessed a new period of prosperity. Their prince, Arpád, took up his residence on Csepel Isle, which he fortified as a base for his operations in the subjugation of Hungary to his sway.

After the devastation by the Tartar hordes in 1241, Buda rose from its ruins under King Béla IV, who, taking account of the strategic importance of the Danube, fortified the hill on which the Royal Palace now stands.

Later, in 1286, Pest began to play a more important rôle, the National Diet assembling in that year for the first time on the neighbouring plain of Rákos.

The royal line of Arpád having become extinct, Buda rose again to eminence under the Anjou kings, Charles Robert and Louis the Great ; but in the troublous times that followed she had much to endure.

Under King Sigismund (who was also Emperor of Germany) the Royal Castle of Buda became an Imperial residence. This glory was, however, of fleeting duration, for at

Sigmund's decease, struggles between the nationalities and parties broke out and Ladislas, son of the renowned John Hunyady, fell a victim to the malice of his enemies, being beheaded in 1457 on the spot now known as St. George's Square.

Under the brother of that prince, King Matthias, a new epoch of prosperity set in. The royal residence and the Parliament were transferred to Buda, a college was founded, and the city became the political, scientific, and commercial centre of the kingdom. After Matthias's death, however, this brilliant period ended, and the internal dissensions were renewed, stifling all progress and bringing to naught the work of the great and good king. The land was, moreover, menaced from without. After the battle of Mohács, Buda fell into the hands of the Turks without striking a blow; and for 145 years the Crescent banner floated from the walls of the Hungarian capital.

In 1686 Prince Charles of Lorraine, at the head of the allied armies, drove out the Turks and roused the Hungarians of Buda from their long torpor. But their trials and afflictions were not yet over; the Rákóczi insurrection and the plague reduced the population to such a degree that in 1710 there were in both Buda and Pest only 300 souls. Yet with praiseworthy courage this handful of citizens took up the task of setting their house in order. Civic authorities were appointed, and the sister cities prospered once more. In 1784 the University of Nagyszombat was transferred to Pest, and shortly afterwards the first hospital, seminary, and barracks were erected. Under the influence of the example set them by their beloved palatine, Archduke Joseph, a new spirit took possession of the people. During the early part of last century the National Museum, Hungarian Scientific Society, National Theatre, National Casino, Institute for the Blind, and other works of public culture and utility were inaugurated, while the Danube was rendered navigable for all kinds of ships.

Then came the year of calamity, 1838, when the mighty river overflowed its banks, spreading death and destruction for miles around.

Late in the afternoon of the 13th March the waters of the Danube had risen so high that grave fears began to pervade all breasts. Orders were given to fortify the dike, and hundreds of labourers were soon at work with this intention.

Towards eight o'clock in the evening the alarm bell boomed forth its warning peal, and then the scene in the neighbourhood of the river baffled description. Workmen and soldiers lighted by torchbearers, were actively employed in strengthening the defences; crowds thronged the quays, impeding the passage of the wagons laden with sand to fill the breaches. It is calculated that not less than 60,000 persons must have been collected on the shore, when about ten o'clock the swollen river suddenly burst the dike, and the wild waters, laden with jagged ice, rushed onwards with resistless violence, driving before them the cowering crowd, who fled appalled and breathless before the swift pursuit of this strange and terrible enemy. Night fell, as if to aggravate the terror; and men hurried on, they knew not whither, pursued by a danger against which the bravest could not contend. The shrieks of women and the groans of men rent the air; mothers screaming for their children, children wailing for their parents; the sharp sound of flying footfalls upon the frozen earth; and over all the rushing, dashing, swirling noise of the emancipated waters made up the frightful diapason. By an hour past midnight most part of the city was flooded to a height of 27 feet, and in several streets large boats might have been seen moving from house to house rescuing the inhabitants.

On the morning of the 14th whole streets of houses, undermined by the pent-up volume of water filling the subterranean, fell with a succession of deafening crashes, collapsing like houses of cards, burying human beings and animals alike amid the ruins; 2,281 houses were completely destroyed;

827 were seriously damaged ; and only 1,147 in the whole city remained intact.

During these distressful days the most eminent men of the country, aided by unknown heroes, performed prodigies of valour and gave proof of the noblest Christian charity in rescuing thousands of destitute inhabitants. A memorial tablet on the Franciscan church in Kossuth Lajos utca (street) records the heroic deeds of Baron Wesselényi and his brave companions on that never-to-be-forgotten occasion.

In the ten years that followed this disaster the city recovered ; industry and commerce, literature and the arts flourished and developed with inconceivable rapidity. The year 1848 marks the beginning of a new era in the history of Budapest, as, indeed, in that of all Hungary. The nation awoke to the ideals of liberty and constitutional government. The first responsible Hungarian Ministry was appointed, and the first Parliament based on national representation superseded the ancient Diet founded on class privileges.

But the unfortunate result of the War of Freedom rendered the situation most precarious. During the reign of martial law and the succeeding police rule, utter stagnation was experienced in all branches of public activity throughout Hungary.

Yet once again the nation revived. The bonds of oppression were by degrees relaxed, until in 1866 the Sovereign and the Nation became reconciled. Francis Joseph's coronation as King of Hungary, on 8th June, 1867, is a red-letter day in the history of Budapest. The restoration of the Constitution, the transfer of the Parliament to Pest, and the uniting, in 1872, of the hitherto separate cities of Buda and Pest under the title of Budapest, and as the capital of Hungary, resulted in renewed prosperity and bright hopes for the future.

During the forty-one years that have since elapsed Budapest has become the metropolis of the Hungarian kingdom in a very real sense ; the seat of national culture, and a rival of the other great cities of Europe.

Its Municipal Council is composed of 400 members, half of whom are elected from 1,200 citizens paying the highest taxes, and the other half from the rest of the inhabitants. These two bodies are the Aldermen and the Councillors respectively.

The  
Municipal  
Council.

At the head of the Council is the Chief Burgomaster, or Lord Mayor, elected for six years by the Council from three candidates nominated by the King. (The present Chief Burgomaster, is Mr. Francis Heltai.) Under him is the Burgomaster, the head of the executive, who, in the absence of the Chief Burgomaster, presides at Council meetings. (The present Burgomaster is Dr. Stephen Bárczy.) Besides these two officials, there are two Vice-Burgomasters, the Mayors of the ten wards into which the city is divided, and a host of other officials of more or less importance.

The growth of the city may be appreciated by the fact that, whereas in 1872 the expenses of municipal government were only £200,000, they last year exceeded £3,000,000 sterling. The funds of the capital are, in round figures, £20,000,000; its debts, £8,250,000. Four hundred and forty-five buildings, the property of the municipality, figure in the latest inventory for the sum of £6,875,000, while the land owned by the municipality is set down for £7,000,000.

Its increase of population has been nothing short of marvellous during the last generation. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, when the population of Berlin was 55,000, that of Naples 300,000, and that of Paris, 720,000, Buda and Pest (not then united) had *only 2,000 souls between them!* In 1910 the population of Budapest was 880,371, and to-day it lacks but few of a million.<sup>1</sup>

It is not, however, our intention to set down flattery, and in writing of "things as they are" we shall give equal prominence to the disagreeable as to the pleasing and meritorious features of this interesting city.

The annual birth-rate is 27·4 per thousand, the death-rate,

<sup>1</sup> Actually 990,000.

20.6. Twenty-six per cent. of the births are illegitimate. Illegitimate births are rarest among the Jews (11 per cent.), and most numerous among the adherents of the Greek churches (46 per cent.). The Protestants contribute 15 per cent. and the Roman Catholics 20 per cent. to the illegitimates.<sup>1</sup>

The cheerful optimism of the Hungarians fosters the gambling spirit within them.<sup>2</sup> Gambling in all its forms is met with on every hand. Quite half the population of Budapest indulge in games of chance to a greater or less degree. The most serious persons gamble; even some of the clergy cannot be excluded from this category. Among the upper classes fortunes have sometimes changed hands in a single night over the cards; and in the streets of Budapest may be seen to-day genuine titled nobles destitute of means in consequence of either their parents' or their own profligacy.

#### Gambling and Lotteries.

After the cards the favourite form of gambling is the lottery. Is it necessary to raise funds for any purpose, secular or sacred, the lottery is resorted to. Schools, hospitals, asylums, churches, and cathedrals are often built and supported with money raised by this means. "*Buy a lottery-ticket and God will bless you!*" may sound incongruous to some ears, yet such was the purport of an appeal recently issued in connection with an effort to provide the wherewithal for erecting a certain church in the neighbourhood of Budapest; while St. Stephen's Cathedral lottery-tickets (*Basilikai Sorsjáték*) can be procured to-day at most of the banking houses. Rich

<sup>1</sup> "A Budapest, plus d'un quart des naissances sont illégitimes. Bien qu'une légère amélioration puisse être constatée à cet égard depuis quelques années, la fréquence en est toujours très grande (26 à 27 per cent.). Les naissances illégitimes sont le plus rares (10 à 12 per cent.) chez les israélites, le plus nombreuses (44 à 48 per cent.) chez les grecs-unis."—(*Guide Médical de Budapest* par le Dr. Tibère de Györy.) For the whole country the proportions of illegitimate births are as follows: Protestants, 8.70 per cent.; Catholics, 9.40 per cent.; Jews, 11.19; Greek Churches, 19.17.

<sup>2</sup> This is, of course, equally true of other peoples besides the Hungarians.

and poor alike patronise the lottery—the latter in many cases first patronising the State pawn-shop.<sup>1</sup> Secure in the possession of his lottery-ticket, the potential Hungarian millionaire often glides through life without a thought as to its responsibilities, his duty to himself or others. Like Mr. Micawber, always expecting *something to turn up*, when it does *not*—which is only too often the case—he is apt to degenerate into a lazy drone, an utterly unreliable person, dissatisfied with everybody and everything, blaming his failure in life to the social organisation of which he is a unit. It is not, therefore, to be wondered at if he drifts into Socialism or even Anarchism. The multiplication of such social failures becomes in time a menace to the State, as Hungary is finding to her cost to-day.

The Government of Hungary causes this gambling spirit to contribute to the revenue by imposing a heavy tax on the winnings in the Royal Hungarian Lottery, an institution not unknown in England.

The headquarters of the Royal Hungarian Lottery are a palatial edifice overlooking the Danube, and there the periodical drawings of prizes take place. The respectability of its numerous officials is above suspicion. The method of conducting the drawings, too, leaves nothing to be desired on the score of honesty. The Hall of Drawings is open to the general public, so that the curious, whether ticket-holders or not, have free access to witness the proceedings.

On a platform are to be seen two burnished copper cylinders, or wheels, with plate-glass sides, and consequently transparent. The tiny rolls of paper bearing the winning numbers are placed in the one cylinder, and those bearing the amounts of the prizes in the other. This done, the cylinders are closed and turned rapidly until their contents are well mixed up. They are then re-opened and the drawing commences.

<sup>1</sup> Pawnbroking is in Hungary conducted by the State, which exacts a low rate of interest on pledges sufficient to meet working expenses.

Two girls from an orphan asylum, got up for the occasion in holiday attire, with bare arms, preside at the cylinders, each drawing forth simultaneously a roll from the wheel. These rolls they hand together to the clerk or secretary, who announces with loud voice the winning number and the amount of the prize that has fallen to it, the public notary recording the same in his book and filing the slips for permanent reference.

This arrangement precludes the possibility of collusion or unfairness in awarding the prizes. Patrons of the Lottery living abroad may, however, sometimes have to suffer from the sharp practice of some agent or other whose business methods would scarcely commend themselves to Englishmen.

Taken as a whole—although there are very numerous and notable exceptions—punctuality is not a virtue on which the Hungarians can pride themselves with any sense of justice. Too many of them pay little regard to the value of time, their own or other people's. The coffee-houses of Budapest are well patronised throughout the day—and *night*.<sup>1</sup> Hours are often spent over a single cup of coffee or other beverage, in conversation, dozing over the newspaper, or listening to the dreamy strains of the gipsy band. This evil is recognised and deplored by many enlightened inhabitants of the Hungarian metropolis, who, however, are powerless to effect improvement except by force of their own excellent example. Multiply the hours wasted daily by the number of days in the year, the number of years in a generation, and the loss to the country as well as to the individual may be somewhat realised.

The Hungarians are not brilliant as correspondents. Many things which in England can be effected by means of a few written lines through the post require in Hungary a personal interview. Hungarians who have lived some time in England

<sup>1</sup> *As egész éjjel nyitva* (open all night), and *Reggel 3 óráig nyitva* (open till 3 a.m.), are legends which frequently meet the eye in the windows of the coffee-houses in Budapest.



or America are fully aware of these differences telling to the disadvantage of their own people, and to deal with such individuals is usually more agreeable than dealing with their untravelled compatriots. Hungarian manufacturers and merchants now send their sons to England and America to study the business methods of those countries. These young men, after their sojourn abroad, return home and immediately begin to put their newly acquired modern ideas into practice, with beneficial results to themselves and others.

The greater contact with the outside world afforded by international congresses at Budapest is of incalculable value for the stay-at-home Magyars; and such events have been rather frequent during the past decade. As examples may be mentioned the Post Office Congress (1905), Press Congress (1906), Postal Telegraph Congress (1908), Law Congress (1908), and the Medical Congress (1909). On each of these occasions Budapest was the rendezvous of representative men (many of them accompanied by their wives and daughters) from all quarters of the globe.

In an exceptional degree was this the case with the Sixteenth Medical Congress in 1909. On that occasion the city of Budapest was *en fete* and the Burgomaster, on behalf of the Municipality, extended an official welcome to distinguished physicians from Great Britain and her Colonies (172), United States (188), the Argentine Republic (35), Japan (43), Brazil (22), Cuba (6), Chili (4), Mexico (3), Uruguay (3), Egypt (21), Germany (277), Austria (247), France (280), Italy (165), Russia (210), Spain (66), Belgium (46), Portugal (32), Holland (33), Switzerland (29), Turkey (20), Bulgaria (17), Greece (18), Roumania (10), Denmark (10), Servia (7), Sweden (5), and Norway (3), and the ladies who accompanied them to the number of 800. The 1,267 native physicians who played the hosts, under the lead of Professor Kálmán Müller (since created baron for his eminent services to the cause of medical science) and Dr. Emil Grósz—President and General Secretary respectively of the Congress—gave their guests

an object-lesson in the art of entertaining of which they will doubtless long retain pleasant reminiscences. But, then, Magyar hospitality is proverbial.

This year (1913) the Hungarian capital welcomed the world's publishers to the International Publishers' Congress, and ere these had returned home the ladies of many lands appeared on the scene to compare notes and discuss problems of importance to the sex at the Universal Feminist Congress.

The spiritual needs of the Anglo-Saxon colony of Budapest are met by Church of England, Methodist Episcopal, and Presbyterian Missions. The last-named owes

**British and  
American  
Churches.**

its origin to a somewhat romantic incident. When in 1839 a party of Scotch missionaries were returning from the Holy Land, one of their number—Rev. Dr. Alexander Keith—was taken seriously ill, obliging the whole party to remain in Budapest until he had recovered sufficiently to continue the journey. The news of this gentleman's illness happened to penetrate to the Court and reached the ears of the wife of the Archduke-Palatine. The Archduchess Maria Dorothea, a Protestant, lost no time in calling on the sick clergyman. She called indeed more than once, and on one occasion related that, having prayed God to open the way for the Gospel to be preached in Budapest, she regarded the presence of these clergymen as the answer to her prayers. With the moral and material support of Her Royal Highness the commencement of the work was easy. It led, however, to the passing of a "House Law" prohibiting any member of the Habsburg Family from taking a Protestant for consort without renouncing the rights and privileges of his order.

## CHAPTER X

### ART, MUSIC, AND THE DRAMA

ART of a kind seems to have flourished in Hungary since before King Matthias introduced foreign painters, sculptors, carvers, and gilders into the country for the

embellishment of his palaces and castles. In olden times Magyar pottery-ware, jewellery, embroidery, carpets, and ornamental leather-work were renowned in all the chief towns of Western Europe. The constant struggles, however, with the Turks and other enemies arrested the progress of those industries, obliging them to seek refuge among the peasantry, who carried them on as well as they could in the obscurity of their cottage homes in those regions that had escaped the furies of war. Remote from foreign influences, the humble Magyar peasantry thus preserved the artistic traditions of their ancestors.

After the Ausgleich<sup>1</sup> of 1867 efforts were made to develop the artistic life of the country in teaching the methods and principles of the chief Western schools ; but later the need of a *national* school was apparent, and a basis thereof was discovered in the productions of popular art. The Magyars, conceiving an ambition to create a modern Hungarian style, founded the Society of Industrial Arts, as the most direct means to the desired end. This institution, supported by the Government, has brought to the front a galaxy of talent, resulting in the productions of Hungarian artistic skill being known in all the markets of the civilised world. Zsolnay pottery and porcelain, Rappaport enamels, Kalotaszeg embroidery, the peasant needlework of North Hungary, and the carpets of the south, as well as the peculiarly ornate

<sup>1</sup> Agreement with Austria.

wood-carving of the Magyar peasantry have found admirers and purchasers everywhere.

On entering a city for the first time the architecture is naturally the first thing to strike the eye, that is to say, if it differs at all from the architecture of other cities. In Budapest this is eminently the case. The architecture there certainly has individuality; being neither Gothic, Ionic, Corinthian, nor any other style approved in the West: it is *Hungarian*, combining the Oriental with the Occidental in a fashion calculated to raise a smile on the countenances of British visitors to the Magyar capital. It is not inelegant, of course, but it is strange. *Motifs* of every figure known to geometry, the tiniest tiles of every colour of the rainbow placed here and there, and much gilding are especial features of the façades; while representations of the human form, generally undraped, meet one at entrances and at the foot of staircases.

These observations apply to the buildings in general. There are in Budapest edifices of classic design, some of which have already been referred to. The Royal Palace is in the Rococo style; the Art Gallery, Museum of Fine Arts, and National Museum are pure Greek; the Synagogue is in Byzantine style. The most interesting examples of modern Hungarian architecture are the Gresham Insurance Company's offices—the work of Quittner—Museum of Industrial Art, Post Office Savings Bank, and the Parish Church of Kőbánya (a suburb of Budapest)—all designed by the eminent architect Edmund Lechner. The Houses of Parliament are the masterpiece of Imre Steindl; the Opera, Cathedral, and Custom House are worthy examples of the genius of Nicolas Ybl, these two men being unquestionably the greatest of Magyar architects.

In beautiful paintings and statuary Budapest is not lacking, though insufficient appreciation at home has driven many a promising Hungarian artist to try his fortune in a foreign land. Several such are flourishing in London to-day, among

them Philip László, whose exhibits at the Royal Academy and his portraits of members of the British Royal Family are well known. The most prominent knights of the brush and palette living at home are Mészöly, Székely, Ladislas Pál, Szinyei-Merse, Benczur, Thán, and Lotz.

"The Baptism of King Stephen," "Rakoczi's Arrest," and "Homage to the King" (the Magyar nobles in national costume at a Royal reception), by Julius Benczur, are historical paintings of which any nation might be proud. In the last-named work all the figures are authentic portraits. Munkácsy's fame is derived chiefly from his paintings on sacred subjects: "Christ before Pilate," "Golgotha," and "Ecce Homo!" though he has also produced several striking pictures illustrating incidents in the history of his native land. His "Coming of the Magyars" is in this respect perhaps his *chef-d'œuvre*, containing several hundreds of figures each painted with a fidelity to detail that excites the wonder of every intelligent spectator.

Székely's genius is shown in his delightful frescoes in the Coronation Church and also in Pécs Cathedral. Of portrait painters Horowitz and Karlovsky are the best known. Genre painting is ably represented by Csók, Tornay, Jendrassik, Pataky, and Vágó; while as impressionists Mednyánszky and Kacziány are perhaps unequalled.

In sculpture the pioneers were Engel and Ferenczy. Living sculptors of European renown are Aloysius Strobl and George Zala, whose *chefs-d'œuvre* are respectively the statues of Arany the poet and of Semmelweiss the gynæcologist, and the equestrian monument of Count Andrassy before the Houses of Parliament. Of Ligeti, whose statue of *Anonymous* adorns the City Park; of Telcs, whose Vörösmarty group evokes the admiration of every beholder, and of George Vastagh the world will hear more in the near future.

The two art palaces of Budapest would be valuable acquisitions to the greatest cosmopolitan city. The Museum of Fine Arts is rich in the works of the native artists just referred



*Photographed for this work by*

*Miss Teri Maltysovszky.*

**PÉCS CATHEDRAL, INTERIOR**

*(The most ancient Christian church in Hungary)*

70 11111  
ALPHABET

to, both painters and sculptors, besides those of modern French, Italian, German and Spanish artists. The National Picture Gallery has upwards of 800 paintings, including five Murillos, various Raphaels, Corregios, Van Dycks, Rembrandts, and other invaluable specimens of the Italian and Dutch masters. Most of the exhibits were originally the property of Prince Eszterházy, from whom the Hungarian Government purchased them in 1871 at the comparatively low price of 100,000 guineas.

In Hungary great importance is attached to the drama as an educational adjunct. The Opera Houses and the

National Theatres of the capital, as well as

**The Drama.** those of the chief provincial towns, are absolutely under the control of a special department of the Ministry of Public Instruction (corresponding to the English Board of Education), their permanent staffs being on the footing of civil servants, entitled to State pensions and other honours on retiring from service. Numerous other playhouses enjoy subventions from the Government. The Budapest Theatre<sup>1</sup> is subventioned by the Municipality, who presented also the site for the handsome People's Opera inaugurated two years ago: a building capable of accommodating an audience of 2,000. Thus it may be gathered that the Hungarian Stage acquires a respectability not usually associated with its English counterpart. The principal exponents of the histrionic art<sup>2</sup> in Hungary are, in tragedy, Mdme. Emilia Márkus, Miss Mari Jászay, Oscar Beregi, and Julius Gál; in comedy, Miss Irene Vársányi, Edward Ujházi, and Julius Hegedas; in operette, the two Sárís—Misses Petrás and Fedák; while among the portrayers of society life are Mdme. Louise Blaha (the "Hungarian Nightingale"), Miss Irma Alszeghi, and Eugene Ivánfi.

Who has not heard of the *Hungarian Band*? It is often

<sup>1</sup> The official designation; there are, of course, a number of theatres in Budapest.

<sup>2</sup> For the play-writers, see Chapter VI.



in evidence at Earl's Court exhibitions, garden parties, and all high-class social functions to which it is desired to attract the wealth and fashion of London.

**Music.** Generally, however, it is *not* Hungarian: it is more likely to be German. At any rate, the popularity of the name is the measure of the fame of the Hungarians as a musical people.

Their music is much more ancient than their painting and decorative art. The *Anonymous* monk, whom we have already had occasion to quote, records that, after Arpád had conquered the land, he marched his army into Attila's stronghold, where "amid the ruins they held daily feasts, sitting in rows, the sweet tones of their lutes and *shalms*, and all kinds of songs echoing from the company." There is abundant evidence that music was common in Arpád's time.

Eight centuries ago Hungarian music appears to have been in great repute. The principal native instruments are the lute (*koboz*), the violin (*hegedő*), the pipe (*tülinkő*), the buffalo's horn (*kürt*), the trombone (*tárogató*), and the dulcimer (*cimbalom*); though the piano (*zongora*) is now quite as common in Hungary as in England. In Transylvania another instrument of the lute class (the *timbora*) is met with. Earlier than that period the exploits of the national heroes were sung by minstrels to the accompaniment of their lutes in camp and village. The wanderings of the Magyars, the covenant of blood, Arpád and his battles, Lehel and his horn, and other stirring events of history and legend formed the subjects of primitive Hungarian ballads.

Under King Stephen sacred music first came into vogue, and the Gregorian chant soon became common among the Christian converts. The chief objects of the schools founded by Stephen and his immediate successors at Esztergom, Pannonhalma, Vác, Veszprém, and Nagyvárad were "to instruct in the faith of Christ and in song."

The first Christian priests in Hungary being Italians, we may well suppose that the young people were taught mostly

Latin songs and hymns. When later native Hungarians became priests they were taught to sing in the vernacular.

It is interesting to observe how often sacred subjects inspired musical composition. Thus, among many others of a similar character, we have the "Story of the Holy Marriage of the Patriarch Isaac," and "How God led the Children of Israel from Egypt and the Magyars from Scythia." The former is by Andrew Batizi, the latter by Andrew Farkas, both of whom flourished in the sixteenth century. This was also the age of Sebastian Tinodi, the great lutist and chronicler in song of the events of his day.

Valentine Bakfark, born in Transylvania in 1507, went to Vienna in 1570 at the invitation of the Emperor Maximilian. Several of his compositions have descended to posterity. A contemporary of his and another Transylvanian was Christopher Armbruster, whose "Song on Mortality" appeared in 1551.

The advent of the Reformation promoted the development of Hungarian music. When the people sang their own tongue in the churches they began also to sing outside on secular themes to sacred tunes, and many of the hymn-tunes of Gaudimel the Huguenot became naturalised in Hungary.

The period of Thököly and Rákóczy was the "golden age" of Hungarian ballad, and many real musical gems have those days bequeathed to the present. The great masters, Handel and Bach, were then in their childhood; and the incomparable Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven did not arise till a half-century later. This was the time of the "Rákóczy Song" and the "Rákóczy Lament," on which was founded later the spirit-stirring "Rákóczy March."

Dance music became popular through the wandering gipsies of the fourteenth century. Not only did the common people welcome these nomads, but they even found entrance into the castles and mansions of the nobles and the wealthy. In the sixteenth century one of these gipsies, Dominic Kálmán, rose to fame as a violinist.

The old "Palace Dance" is a Court dance of the fifteenth century. Its music differs quite from the other music of the period, being much livelier; and since it consists of slow turns and walking, elderly people and the clergy often took part in it. In Italy it is still danced under the name of *il passo mezzo ungherese*.

In the eighteenth century Michael Barna, Czinka Panna, and John Bihary flourished; the last-named being composer of the dance tunes "Primate," "Palatine," and "Coronation," all of which are very popular to-day. Bihary had several times the honour of being invited to play at the Imperial Court at Vienna; while he gave concerts also in Transylvania, Poland, and his own country. Even the great Beethoven expressed his admiration for Bihary's genius.

There are the "Wedding Dance" and "Coquettish" for marriage festivals; and the "Tent," "Arm," and "Drum Dances" as pastimes among the soldiers in camp. During last century a number of social dances arose, among which the "Round Dance," "Wreath Dance," and "Tavern Dance" are quite fashionable at the present day.

Foreign music-masters were often found at the Courts of the Hungarian kings. At King Sigismund's was the renowned George Stolzer; at King Matthias's the great Dutchman, John Tinctoris, who, formerly at the Court of Ferdinand of Naples, was brought to Hungary by that monarch's daughter, Princess Beatrice, on the occasion of her marriage to King Matthias. Peter, Bishop of Volturno, legate of Pope Sixtus IV, says that the choir of King Matthias was the finest in existence. Besides this, there was a band of trumpeters. The royal orchestra also consisted of thirty executants: a large number at that early period, for even in the eighteenth century the band of the Imperial Court at Vienna numbered eighteen only. Another Dutchman, Adrian Willaert, the creator of the *madrigal*, was "master of the King's music" under Louis II. One of his works in several parts may be seen to-day in St. Marks' Library at Venice.

Organs were first introduced into the churches generally in the reign of King Sigismund ; though there is a document extant, dated 1452, in which John Hunyady sanctions certain expenses in connection with an organ at the parish church of Felsőbánya, while there is also mention of an organ with silver pipes in the chapel of King Matthias at Visegrád.

The pioneer of Hungarian opera composers was Sigismund Cousser, a native of Pozsony. In 1700 we find him choir-master of St. Patrick's Cathedral, Dublin. His operas, "Pyramus and Thisbe" and "Scipio in Africa," evoked universal admiration.

John Francisci, born at Beszterczebánya in 1691, attained to considerable fame as an organist. Sometime choir-master at Pozsony, he retired, in 1735, to his native town, where he filled a similar if less distinguished post till the end of his life.

The Eszterházy family have always been known as great patrons of art and music. Prince Nicolas kept at his castle of Kis-Marton a splendid theatre and orchestra, the latter being led first by Joseph Haydn and afterwards by Pleyel and Hummel. Other distinguished patrons of music are the Károlyis, Batthyányis and Erdődys.

Beethoven's master, Albrechtsberger, and Michael Haydn lived many years at Győr, and Karl Dottersdorf at Nagyvárad, exercising great influence on the development of musical life in both those towns.

Though, as already stated, the piano is now quite common in Hungary, it did not make its appearance till the beginning of last century. To that instrument the

**Liszt.** country owes a genius of harmony in the person of Francis Liszt, who was born at the little village of Doborján, in Sopron county, on 22nd October, 1811. Even in his ninth year Liszt's pianoforte execution excited such wonder that he was styled the second Mozart. The Szapáry, Apponyi, Eszterházy, and Erdödy families took the boy under their protection, guaranteeing between them the expenses of his education. Under this

arrangement he went to Vienna and became the pupil first of Czerny and afterwards of Salieri. At his first concert young Liszt was publicly embraced by Beethoven, who predicted for him a brilliant future. At the age of seventeen he had achieved more than European fame. Twenty years later he retired to Pozsony and settled down to the composition of those "Rhapsodies" which have so delighted the whole musical world. In 1862 he entered the seclusion of the Convent of Monte Mario at Rome, receiving there the lowest clerical ordination of *abbé*. During this period of peaceful retreat he produced his oratorio "St. Elizabeth" (first performed at Budapest in 1865), his "Coronation March," for the auspicious event that took place on 8th June, 1867, and a second oratorio, "Christus" (first rendered at Budapest in 1875). In that year he was appointed the first director of the Royal Hungarian Academy of Music. When his death occurred at Bayreuth on 31st July, 1886, the Hungarian people mourned the loss of one whose genius had brought his native land to the forefront of cultured nations, while the whole world was the poorer for the passing of a great master of the divine, uplifting art of music.

His famous contemporary, Francis Erkel (born 5th November, 1810, died 15th June, 1860), was the founder of modern Hungarian opera. His chief works are "Maria Báthory" and "Ladislas Hunyady."

Charles Goldmark, the dramatist, must not be omitted from our list of Hungarian musical worthies. Born at Keszthely in 1832, he achieved a universal reputation with his Oriental piece "Sakunthala," first produced in 1860. Of his other works the best appreciated are "Penthesilea," "Sappho," and "The Queen of Sheba," the last named being undoubtedly his *chef-d'œuvre*.

Her living musicians of international repute are sufficiently numerous to justify Hungary's claim to be considered a musical nation. Karl Thern, Charles and Eugene Huber—father and son—are well known abroad. Edmund Mihalovich

("Hero and Leander" and "The Phantom Ship"), Francis Sarossy ("Attila" and "The Last of the Abencerages"), and among the younger generation Imre Elbert, Edmund Farkas, Julius Mannheimer, and Maurice Verinecz are all operatic composers of whom any land may be proud.

Among violinists—the distinctive production of musical Hungary—must be mentioned Joseph Joachim, Eugene Hubay, Jóska Szigeti, Francis Vecsey, Stefi Geyer, and the greatest 'cellist of the century, David Popper.

An aristocratic pianist is Count Géza Zichy, who, when a boy, had the misfortune to lose his right arm in a gun explosion. His left-hand playing has excited the admiration of the musical world; he is, moreover, the author of a successful opera.

The names of the Hungarian song-writers and singers are legion. We must, however, mention Benjamin Egressy, Ernest Lányi, Alexander Erkel, Francis Gaál, Edward Szigligety, Ignacius Bognár, Julius Kaldy, Michael Fűredy, Aloysius Tarnay, Loránd Fráter, and Béla Zerkowitz; while among the ladies are Madam Hegedüs and "the Hungarian Nightingale," Madam Blaha. For ballet music Charles Szabados and Louis Toth are unrivalled.

During the course of the last century many institutions for musical culture have arisen in Hungary. The first Conservatoire was founded in 1819 at Kolozsvár; the second at Arad in 1833. The institution known originally as the Musicians' Society of Pesth, developed into the National Conservatoire of Music. In 1860 a Conservatoire was inaugurated at Debreczen; an example followed within the next few years by the towns of Kassa, Szeged, and Szabadka. In the year named the Musical Academy of Buda was also founded. In 1875, as already stated, the Royal Hungarian Academy of Music was opened with the Abbé Liszt at its head. Besides these, the Hungarian metropolis boasts numerous choral societies, glee unions, and other organisations devoted to the cultivation of musical talent; while its concert season is as brilliant as that of Vienna.

## CHAPTER XI

### AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, AND INDUSTRY

UPWARDS of 6,000,000, or 68 per cent. of the bread-winners of Hungary, are employed in agricultural pursuits; and since 7,000,000 more may be reckoned as

**Agriculture.** dependent upon these, we have a total of 13,000,000, or 68 per cent. *of the total population* of the country living by agriculture. Even this great number is, however, a decrease since 1890, in which year no less than 72 per cent. of the population were engaged in or dependent upon the cultivation of the soil for their livelihood.

The Ministry of Agriculture does all in its power to ensure the success of this the principal occupation of the inhabitants of the land, by providing special agricultural schools wherein facilities are given the farmers and small landowners to acquire the necessary practical knowledge, and to become acquainted with the latest scientific discoveries in all branches of agriculture. Besides these facilities for the already educated agriculturists, however, there are also schools for the training of farm labourers along the most practical lines, as well as schools of dairy work, horticulture, viticulture, and forestry.

Property ownership in Hungary is characterised by extremes. There are many large estates and many small ones, but those of medium extent are now very few and far between. A different state of affairs, too, is found in Hungary from that obtaining in England. In the latter country tenant-farming is the rule; in Hungary it is the exception. The Hungarian gentlemen farm their own lands, and are often inferior in business capacity and agricultural knowledge; the same statement holds good also with regard to the small-holders; hence the solicitude of the Agricultural Ministry for their general enlightenment is not without reason.

More than 30,000,000 hectares,<sup>1</sup> out of the 32,500,000

<sup>1</sup> One hectare = 2.471 acres.



Mr. Nándor Szabó.

THE CASTLE OF VAJDA HUNYAD.  
(Utilised as an Agricultural Museum)

Photographed for this work by



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ABSORUO

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forming the area of Hungary, is productive land: its distribution being as follows:

		Area (in hectares).
Ploughed-land . . . . .	41.63 per cent.	13,531,028
Forest-land . . . . .	27.88    "	9,060,888
Pasture-land . . . . .	12.59    "	4,092,882
Meadow-land . . . . .	10.31    "	3,349,806
Gardens . . . . .	1.30    "	421,705
Vineyards . . . . .	.72    "	234,182
Cane-brakes . . . . .	.23    "	75,042
Non-productive . . . . .	5.34    "	1,734,261
	<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/>	<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/>
	100.00	32,499,794

The latest data (1913) show the yield of the productive area for last year to have been as follows:

Wheat . . . . .		5,273,624 tons.
Carrots and Turnips . . . . .		5,428,556   "
Potatoes . . . . .		5,223,682   "
Maize . . . . .		4,100,489   "
Mixed Provender . . . . .		2,775,740   "
Beetroot . . . . .		2,987,593   "
Lucerne and Clover . . . . .		2,328,465   "
Vetches and Millet-grass . . . . .		1,755,017   "
Barley . . . . .		1,578,607   "
Rye . . . . .		1,508,711   "
Oats . . . . .		1,381,987   "
Tobacco . . . . .		63,314   "
Hemp . . . . .		67,287   "
Peas, Beans, and Lentils . . . . .		34,563   "
Hemp-seed . . . . .		21,396   "
Rape-seed . . . . .		21,174   "
Harl . . . . .		15,795   "
Clover-seed . . . . .		9,389   "
Linseed . . . . .		7,014   "
Lucerne-seed . . . . .		4,196   "

Practically all the forest land is included in the large estates, while the arable is in the hands of the small-holders—a class which in the past formed the very backbone of the political and social life of Hungary. This was the class which supplied the leaders in the struggles for religious and political freedom at the time of the Reformation and later, upholding the national glory and sacrificing themselves in their country's cause.

During the last few years there has been a movement towards co-operation, but only as regards leasing. The responsibility towards the landlord is shared by several tenants, but when the agreement is signed, the leased land is divided and each party proceeds on his own responsibility ; a good method of keeping men on the land, but it is not co-operative farming. Hungarian legislation, prior to 1848, sought to control the proprietor's rights of selling and mortgaging, somewhat after the fashion of the Wyndham Act (for Ireland) ; but the changes made in the law in the year referred to, freed the farmers and gave them the absolute right to dispose of their land. Neither the selling of the land to foreigners nor the parcelling out into small plots is satisfactory to the Government, yet no practical remedy is forthcoming up to the present. Some propose to introduce the law of primogeniture, as in England ; to exempt the ancestral estate from sale, as in America ; or to fix limits to the disposal of inherited property, as in Germany. The matter will no doubt resolve itself ere long ; in the meantime the national legislators demand that the agricultural education already alluded to shall be vigorously pushed forward.

The position of the Hungarian farm labourers until the last few years was a very miserable one. Dr. Ignacius Darányi, when Minister of Agriculture, took a keen interest in that class and did much to brighten their lives, by establishing reading clubs and passing Acts of Parliament to improve their material conditions. Among the latter were (a) a Labour Bureau with a central office at Budapest ; (b) old-age pensions for farm servants, and (c) a vote of £12,500 annually for the next thirty years for erecting more comfortable dwellings for them. Many of the farm labourers' so-called "homes," even on the estates of the wealthy nobles, were a disgrace to any country claiming to be civilised. Dr. Darányi especially distinguished himself in his successful struggle with agricultural strikes. Fourteen or fifteen years ago the agriculture of the country was jeopardised by the

refusal of the harvesters to fulfil their contracts. It is always necessary to secure in the previous winter or spring the signed undertakings of the hands required for the summer harvest, and if they are not forthcoming in due time, the harvest is ruined. The State cannot allow agreements of such far-reaching national importance to be lightly broken, and thus was justified in its intervention on the occasion referred to. The State itself being the largest farmer in Hungary, Dr. Darányi, as Minister of Agriculture, collected the workmen's reserve from all the State domains and placed it at the disposal of those landowners who were able to prove that they had lost the services of workmen through no fault of their own. This precedent has been followed ever since, when necessary, and is found to work satisfactorily.

In their endeavours to get higher pay the labourers are assisted by combination before contracting. Their wages are, however, going down, owing to the return of many who emigrated to America. The average daily pay of a farm hand in spring is 1s. 5d., in summer, 2s. 2½d.; in autumn, 1s. 7d.; and in winter, 1s. 1½d. The farm labourer's life has little attraction to offer, and is consequently taken up only by the least desirable class.

Hungary is a considerable wine-producing country, the annual output varying between 3,500,000 and 4,500,000 hectolitres.<sup>1</sup> "*Nullum vinum nisi ungaricum*"

**Wine-growing.**

is a familiar saying, dating from the Middle Ages. The quality of the wine is excellent, but the truth must be told—*adulteration* is practised on a gigantic scale. The Government has tried to put a stop to the evil; heavy punishments are inflicted on convicted delinquents, but in spite of all the game goes merrily on, and one Hungarian gentleman (himself a wine-grower) has said: "For many a year not a single bottle of genuine Hungarian wine has been sold in London."

Hungarian fruit is unsurpassed in Europe: the grapes,

<sup>1</sup> Hectolitre = 22-0097 gallons.

melons, pears, apples, apricots, peaches, cherries, and nuts would be hailed with delight in Covent Garden, if only they could be got there in fresh condition. Alas! there are no *refrigerating carriages* on the Hungarian railway system; and *cold storage* is unknown outside Budapest.

With the exception of horses, the breeding of animals is not so general in Hungary as in England. The State has stud-farms at Kisbér (for English thorough-breds), Bábolna (for Arabs), and Mezöhegyes (for both kinds). Besides these there are more than a thousand breeding-stations belonging to the State, with an aggregate of 3,500 stallions. The quality of the Hungarian horse is well known in England. It may be interesting to recall here Lord Rosebery's facetious observation to the effect that "*there were none but good horses in Hungary, since the Hungarians had exported all their bad ones for the war in South Africa!*" The revenue from the export of horses represents upwards of £1,000,000 sterling a year.

For draught purposes in the country oxen are largely used—long-horned, white animals, akin to the Padolians of Russia.

The latest inventory of the quadrupeds in Hungary, from the reports of the official veterinary inspectors, reads as follows :

Sheep . . . . .	8,548,204
Pigs . . . . .	7,580,446
Horned cattle . . . . .	7,319,121
Horses . . . . .	2,351,481
Goats . . . . .	426,981
Mules and Asses . . . . .	21,953

Formerly pig-breeding was a flourishing trade in Hungary, but the outbreak of swine-fever in 1895 dealt it a heavy blow, from which it has not yet recovered. To-day, however, pork is still one of the commonest articles of diet. The Hungarian pig is woolly, and at a distance can hardly be distinguished from a sheep.

Cattle disease is controlled pretty much the same as in England. Rinderpest has been quite abolished; anthrax and glanders are rare; rabies rarer still; but swine-fever is

still a factor to be reckoned with. The Government indemnifies farmers and others for loss of cattle through disease.

The forest-land of Hungary, covering an area of more than 9,000,000 hectares,<sup>1</sup> abounds with game. Statistics are deficient, as the statements of sportsmen cannot be absolutely relied on; but it is estimated that 4,500,000 head of game are

**The Forest  
Lands.**

killed annually, the majority consisting of hares and partridges. Deer and wild boar are also shot in great numbers; as well as chamois, mouffons, and bears to a smaller extent. The late King Edward, when Prince of Wales, was a familiar figure in the hunting parties of the Hungarian magnates.

One million five hundred thousand hectares of this forest-land belong to the State. It is not on this territory only, however, that scientific forestry is practised; there are nearly 150 State nurseries which, in one year, produced an aggregate of 67,000,000 saplings. These were used in the re-afforestation of barren districts and for planting along the country road-sides. There are also gardens for the rearing of fruit-trees destined to be planted on the road-sides; for mulberry trees in connection with sericulture; and for willows in connection with the basket-weaving industry. Every municipality is under legal obligation to establish and maintain one such garden, but, generally speaking, this measure is not a success, as too much expense is involved, and often more knowledge of horticulture is required than is to be found in the locality.

The Ministry of Agriculture takes the oversight of all matters relating to the waterways of the country. Preventive works against inundations exceed in extent and importance those of any other European land. In Russia and America only are the flood areas and morasses more extensive than in Hungary, in which the protected area covers 3,670,000 hectares.

The natural water-ways of Hungary are 2,500 miles in extent. In the winter and the rainy season these, but for the excellent preventive works, would be a source of grave

<sup>1</sup> *Vide* page 249.

danger to the lives and property of thousands living in the adjacent towns and districts. As it is, this danger cannot be entirely obviated. The disaster at Budapest in 1838 has already been described;<sup>1</sup> in 1879 the town of Szeged (105,000 inhabitants) was practically destroyed by the River Tisza bursting its banks. This year also, by the overflowing of the River Maros, several villages in Transylvania have been wiped out, hundreds of lives lost and thousands rendered homeless. The pecuniary damage done is estimated at £1,600,000.

There are 523 inland water-locks and bank flood-gates in the valley of the Danube, and 2,804 in that of the Tisza; while the number of bridges are 898 and 1,978 respectively. Neither the flood-gates nor the dykes are sufficient to lead off the water from certain areas of the Great Plain, as the water in the channel of the river, between the embankments, is often for months together at a higher level than that upon the protected areas behind the embankments.

The shipping affairs of the country, the harbour works of the only seaport (Fiume), and the maintenance of the "Iron Gate" of the Danube—near the Serbo-Roumanian frontier—are in the department of the Ministry of Commerce.

The economic development of Hungary dates from a very recent period: forty years ago it could scarcely be said to have begun. Hungary is a country to which Nature and circumstances have denied the two factors necessary to commercial greatness—an extensive seaboard and a highly developed home industry. We may not be surprised, therefore, that she has been unable to rise to the level of prosperity attained by more favoured nations; though I shall endeavour to show, in the course of this chapter, that the progress of the past decade is remarkably gratifying from the Hungarian point of view.

An important sign of this commercial Renaissance is the fact that for the past year or two the Ministry of Commerce

<sup>1</sup> *Vide* Chapter IX.

has been overwhelmed with work. The Factory Act of 1884, which circumstances had rendered practically obsolete, is now being completely revised, and a number of Bills have been laid before Parliament intended to settle various pressing social questions of the day.

For reasons that I do not feel competent to explain, the Hungarian Government considers foreign capital a *sine quâ non* to the development of the economic resources of the country; and accordingly offers generous subventions, exemption from taxation, and other favours and concessions to foreigners as inducements to them to establish their businesses in Hungary. During the last ten years no less than £1,250,000 sterling have been devoted to this purpose; and in the past twelve months alone upwards of £200,000. Since 1902 foreign individuals and firms to the number of 512 have been assisted; these in return finding employment for 15,425 Hungarians; for it is one of the conditions attaching to every subvention or concession of this kind that only natives shall be employed whenever such can be found competent for the work required to be done.

The number of industrial schools of all kinds erected during the past few years, and the zealous activity with which others are being added, are a tacit admission on the

**Industrial  
Schools.**

part of the authorities that the Hungarian artisan has much to learn ere he can hold his own against his neighbours. There are at present in the country four higher grade industrial schools, twenty-three handicraft schools, one industrial school for girls, and five artisans' schools, the whole accommodating 18,500 pupils; while three other institutions are approaching completion: at Pécs, Miskolcz, and Ujpest respectively. The higher grade industrial school at Budapest has just been enlarged, in the metals, chemistry, and machine-construction departments; while among other institutions that have recently undergone extension may be mentioned the clock-making school of Budapest, the wood-carving school at Győr, and the



school of ironwork at Temesvár. Besides these there are 460 apprentices' schools with 66,300 pupils, six schools for training in basket-weaving, toy and lace-making, and fourteen women's schools for practical needlework. It will thus be seen that the Hungarian State is endeavouring to place its home industry on a solid foundation by the systematising of technical education, preparing young men and women for useful careers and enabling older ones to complete their knowledge of their callings and become acquainted with the most modern methods and improvements.

The backwardness of Hungary was not observed until the manufacturing industry of her foreign neighbours had made a hitherto unexpected advance and the completion of the means of communication made it possible for the factories abroad to inundate the country with their goods. The feeble and in many respects primitive industry of Hungary was unable to compete with that of Austria, which had enjoyed a protective tariff for centuries; and home industry was every year less able to cope with the constantly increasing demands of home consumption. Nevertheless, after gradually overcoming the troubles incident to a transition stage, the industry of Hungary began vigorously to develop. Whereas in 1869 only 9·4 per cent. of the aggregate number of workers were employed in industrial pursuits, to-day there are nearly 15 per cent.

The social legislation of the Government during the past twenty years is deserving of a few words here. The first important step was the passing of Act XIV of 1891, by the provisions of which all factory hands were obliged to become members of a sick fund guaranteeing them free medical attendance, medicine, and sick pay, as well as confinement allowance in the case of wives, and defrayment of funeral expenses at death. The employer paid one-third and the employé two-thirds of the contributions. Act XIX of 1907 was an improvement upon the earlier law, providing for the maintenance of workmen in

**Social  
Legislation.**

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cases of incapacitation owing to accident as well as sickness. By virtue of this law *the beneficiary pays half* the premium only in the insurance against sickness, while in the insurance against accident *the employer pays the whole*. During the course of the expired year Bills have been passed for the better regulation of the building trades and itinerant occupations; while other Bills are in preparation relative to shop hours, prohibition of unfair competition, protection of women-workers and minors, and Sunday rest.

In 1906, while the Act of 1891 was in force, there were 440 sick funds, whose aggregate capital amounted to £588,333, and aggregate income to £610,000. Their aggregate membership numbered 780,217 persons. At the last census there were 1,127,130 industrial employes in Hungary; 1,077,226 engaged in industry proper, 43,081 in domestic, and 6,823 in itinerant industry. All these are by law members of a sick benefit fund. Although the economic depression of 1900 caused many establishments to reduce the number of their employes, there were nevertheless single ironfoundries and machine works in Hungary employing upwards of 2,000 hands each, while in one steel-works no less than 4,447 were employed.

The number of industrial employes mentioned are apportioned as follows:

Clothing	281,320
Articles of Food and Drink	143,736
Iron and Metal-workers	128,219
Building Trade	125,070
Wood and Bone	95,824
Hotels and Restaurants	95,332
Machinists, Vehicles, Electrical Industry	72,415
Earthenware, Glass and Stone	44,886
Domestic Industry	43,081
Spinning and Weaving	34,156
Decorative Art	17,059
Leather, Brush and Feather Work	16,595
Chemical Industry	14,491
Paper-making	7,727
Itinerants	6,823

Total	1,127,130
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There are no exact data giving the present state of Hungarian industry ; but at the last census there were in the country 703 native firms and companies with 938 works or establishments, and 22 foreign firms with 29 factories. The paid-up capital of the former amounted to £41,206,333 ; the aggregate capital, £86,041,666 ; and the net profits, £12,340,417.

There are 85 breweries, which produce in the aggregate 2,158,402 hectolitres of beer annually ; 55,317 spirit distilleries, large and small, with an aggregate annual output of 108,343,400 hectolitres of pure spirit ; 23 sugar factories employing 17,985 hands and producing 333,342 tons of beet-root sugar a year. The Hungarian milling industry is very highly developed, not only satisfying the demands of the native consumers, but exporting flour in a constantly increasing quantity. The mills of Budapest alone grind upwards of 837,000 tons of corn annually, while the annual export of flour exceeds 782,000 tons, representing a value of £7,647,900. The greater part of this goes to Austria ; though, American competition notwithstanding, Hungarian exporters have been able to place 29,400 tons of flour annually on the English market ; a fact due to its excellent quality.

Mining plays a conspicuous *role* in the industry of Hungary. The digging and smelting of ore may be traced back to the bronze age ; later the Roman conquerors of Pannonia engaged in the industry, and in the days of the Arpád kings it formed an important branch of the economic life of the country. The greater part of the revenue being of old contributed by the mines, the Hungarian monarchs not unnaturally did all in their power, by the granting of valuable concessions and by other means, to foster the industry. But on the discovery, to a fabulous extent, of mines of gold and silver in Australia and America, the mining of Hungary lost much of its importance, and since that time the exploitation of coal and iron-ore has, owing to the backward state of Hungarian industry, never been able to reach the

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level of importance attained by lands in which industry is better developed.

Exclusive of coal-miners, of whom no data are available, there are 80,409 persons employed in the mines of Hungary. Twenty years ago the number was 46,134 only: an increase, therefore, of 74 per cent. Of the former number 14,237 (21·2 per cent.) are employed in the mines and smelting works belonging to the State.

Hungary is immensely rich in salt-mines. The production of that indispensable domestic requisite is a monopoly of the State, giving employment to 2,605 persons. Silver-mining, too, is conducted chiefly by the State; while gold-mining is generally undertaken by private enterprise, which has given a great impetus to the production of that precious metal. From 1868 to 1876 the average annual gold output was 1,534 kilograms only, whereas since 1906 it has risen to 3,738 kilograms, representing a value of £513,000. On the other hand, the silver output has declined. While from 1868 to 1876 the average output reached 21,787 kilograms a year, since 1906 it has fallen as low as 13,642 kilograms. The output of Hungarian copper also has dwindled in consequence of the over-production of the United States. Hungary produces also, though in insignificant quantities, lead, antimony, and zinc.

Next to coal, the most important mineral production of Hungary is iron, the northern and eastern counties being especially rich in ore. The output is advancing by leaps and bounds. In the year 1887 the production of iron-ore was 566,000 tons only. In 1906 it had risen to 1,698,000 tons, and to-day it exceeds 2,400,000 tons annually. Unfortunately for the country, the production of pig-iron has not kept pace with that of ore. Every year the ore in ever-increasing quantities is exported to Silesian furnaces to be turned into metal. The metal industry, nevertheless, shows an advance of more than double during the last twenty years: *i.e.*, from 193,000 to 420,000 tons annually. This advance has not

however, been a steady one ; it reached its climax in 1899 (471,000 tons), since which year a decline has had to be recorded.

The advance in the coal output is, on the contrary, much more permanent and vigorous. Coal-fields abound throughout Hungary ; though, unfortunately, they produce chiefly the less valuable lignite, or brown coal, the more valuable anthracite, or stone coal, representing only some 20 per cent. of the whole output. Taking the complete production, we find immense progress has been made during the last thirty years. In 1887 it was 2,510,000 tons ; in 1906 it was 7,603,000 tons ; to-day it exceeds 12,000,000 tons. The coal export trade has increased proportionately. In 1887 some 84,300 tons were sent out of the country ; in 1906 the export had risen to 372,000 tons ; to-day upwards of 400,000 tons are exported annually. The superior coal—anthracite—is largely imported from the coal-fields of the North of England and South Wales. Last year no less than 1,847,000 tons were admitted into Hungary from abroad—chiefly from the ports of Newcastle and Cardiff—the total coal consumption of the country amounting to 9,000,000 tons. Though the output is rapidly increasing, its consumption is increasing still more rapidly—a sign of the development of the industry of the nation.

The remuneration of those persons—not men alone, but women, and youths of both sexes—who risk their lives and limbs in the bowels of the earth, is by no means princely ; official statistics showing the maximum daily wage for a man as 4s. 11d., the minimum, 10d. (for a woman, 2s. 2d.—6d. ; for a youth, 1s. 7d.—3d.). Miserable as these rates certainly are, they are, nevertheless, 65 per cent. higher than those obtaining in 1891. The working day is usually about twelve hours, without a Saturday half-holiday. The cost of living varies in different parts of the country, but on the whole it is about the same as in the mining districts of England.

Compared with the position of their English brethren, that of the Hungarian workers is not an enviable one. The average

weekly earnings of a factory hand are 22s. for a seventy-two hour week (a woman, 10s. 6d. only). The rates of pay are, of course, somewhat higher in Budapest.

Hungary has a seaboard of 94 miles only, the value of which is considerably discounted by the fact that the great mountain range of the Karst shuts it off from the heart of the country, rendering transport by rail difficult and consequently expensive. The navigable rivers, however, compensate somewhat for this disadvantage. The Danube, the largest European river, crosses Hungary in a south-easterly direction, covering a distance of 625 miles. The Tisza, flowing from north to south, practically divides the country into two halves, traversing 750 miles before joining the Danube below Titel. The direction taken by these two great water-ways cannot be said to be altogether favourable for inland traffic. While the former brings the industrial products of Western Europe *down stream* quickly and at little cost, the raw material of Hungary is obliged to fight its way *up stream* at a greater expense of time and money. The Tisza flows for a considerable distance almost parallel with the Danube before finally joining it. A canal connects the two rivers, but being too far south, goods coming down the Tisza must go a long way round to reach the Danube. The cutting of a second canal to remedy the present unsatisfactory state of things, is now engaging the attention of the Government.

The provision and maintenance of good roads has always been an object of the solicitude of the Commerical Ministry.

**Means of Communication.** Last year 238 miles were added to the length of the State roads, bringing it up to 7,360 miles ; while by an additional 940 miles the aggregate length of the county roads has been increased to 18,533 miles. The high-roads of all kinds (State, county, municipal, and district council) have an aggregate length of 60,748 miles, an average of 30 miles of public road to every 100 square miles of territory, or to every 10,000 of the population. Nevertheless, there remains much to be done to improve

the roads of Hungary. Outside the towns in autumn and winter much of the road is practically *morass*, impassable for the pedestrian and extremely dangerous for vehicles carrying even light loads. Road metal being scarce the maintenance of the public roads is an expensive item, the State roads alone absorbing £333,000 a year, and the county roads not less than £1,000,000 sterling. A Bill now before Parliament provides for the completion of all the public roads within a period of eighteen years.

The first railway was laid down in Hungary in 1846, but the Revolution breaking out two years later put a stop to popular aspirations for at least a generation. In 1866 there were only 1,350 miles of railway in the whole country, a figure which was trebled by 1876. Up to that time the railway was in the hands of private companies. Several factors, however—among them the burdens imposed on the State by the guarantee of dividends and the backward economic conditions of the land—convinced the Government of the necessity of taking over this branch of the public service. Accordingly the old lines were bought by the State, and the construction of new lines immediately commenced. To-day, from Budapest as the centre, railways run in all directions. There are eighteen routes to Austria, five to Roumania, one to Servia, two to Bosnia, the most important of all being that connecting the capital with the port of Fiume.

More than £208,000,000 have already been invested in the railways of Hungary. In last year's budget the following sums were voted to defray the expenses of further development of the State lines :

For Rolling Stock . . . .	£420,000
Locomotives . . . . .	340,000
Completion of unfinished lines . . . .	2,374,333
Laying down of new lines . . . . .	267,083
Works of special urgency . . . . .	548,500

The employes of the State railways number 53,511 officials and 49,220 workmen, whose salaries and wages amount in the aggregate to £5,125,000 annually.

The first great enterprise of the State after taking over the railways, was to make Fiume the great emporium of Hungarian commerce. A railway line was accordingly laid down from Budapest, right across the country, boring through the Karst, to the port, rebuilding and extending the harbour and furnishing it with wharves and warehouses : a gigantic undertaking that cost the Government between the years 1871 to 1906, no less than £1,920,000.

Schemes of far-reaching importance are now occupying the attention of the Commercial Ministry, having for their object the attainment of new outlets for Hungarian export traffic. Certain conventions with shipping companies have just been renewed ; the mercantile marine is to be increased ; and to accomplish these things important subsidies have been granted. The Adria Steam Navigation Company is to reorganise its North African service, its vessels putting in at Mogador instead of Gibraltar ; and, increasing its fleet, will multiply its periodical sailings between Marseilles, Oporto, and Fiume. Moreover, a new steamship line is about to be formed connecting Fiume with the newly acquired Italian possessions of Tripoli and Benghazi. The coasting service of Fiume will also be vastly improved, and will embrace the whole eastern shore of the Adriatic. A new line of steamers has recently commenced to run between Fiume and Patras ; while a new vessel of the Ungaro-Croata Company, capable of accomplishing 16 knots an hour, is engaged in the Cattaro traffic. The Hungarian Orient Steam Navigation Company commenced last year a service between Fiume, Australia, New Zealand, and the Dutch East Indies ; and steps are being taken by this company to start, after the Balkan war is over, a weekly service between Galatz and Constantinople. In view of these considerations the port of Fiume must ere long prove inadequate for the requirements of the commerce of Hungary.

Thirty-five years ago Fiume was scarcely more than a fair-sized fishing village, while to-day it has a population



little short of 60,000.<sup>1</sup> Of these 50 per cent. are Italian, 30 per cent. Hungarian, and the rest mainly Croatian. All three languages, with the addition of German, are freely used. The centre of the public life of the city is the Via del Corso, where numerous mural tablets commemorate prominent incidents, an inscription under the vaulted City Gate recording the memory of the great earthquake of 1750. A relic of its Roman origin is the Arco Romano, thought by many to have been originally a triumphal arch in honour of Cæsar Claudius II. The city is pleasantly situated; the blue Adriatic in front, in the background the dark mountains, with Monte Maggiore, capped with eternal snow, towering like a gigantic guardian over all.

The Hungarian Post and Telegraph Administration is also a branch of the Ministry of Commerce, its immediate head (differing somewhat from the British Postmaster-General in that he is not of Ministerial rank) being known as the Director-in-Chief (*Vesbrigazgató*).

Throughout the country there are 314 Treasury (or "Crown") offices, and 4,274 other head, branch, and sub-offices. In Budapest alone are forty-six Treasury branch offices and twenty-four sub-offices, besides the General Post Office, at the public service. Added to these must be the thousands of tobacco-shops in every town, whose owners sell stamps and usually take in parcels and register letters in return for the coveted privilege of being allowed to engage in the remunerative business of vending the favourite weed, of which the Government has the monopoly.

According to data kindly supplied by Dr. William Hennyey (whose position in the Hungarian service corresponds as nearly as possible to that of an English post-office surveyor), a year's traffic in the Hungarian Post and Telegraph Department comprises :

Letters and newspapers . . . . .	650,000,000
Sample-packets and circulars . . . . .	290,000,000

<sup>1</sup> At the census of 1910 the population was actually 49,806.

Parcels . . . . .	40,000,000
Postal Orders . . . . .	30,000,000
Money Orders . . . . .	2,500,000
Inland telegrams . . . . .	9,000,000
Foreign telegrams despatched . . . . .	2,000,000 <sup>1</sup>
Foreign telegrams received . . . . .	2,400,000 <sup>1</sup>

An aggregate sum of nearly £10,000,000 is collected annually by means of the *Remboursement* system,—a public convenience which the English Post-Office ought to have adopted, in its interior service, at least, long ago.

Another advantage not yet enjoyed in England, but which has obtained in Hungary for many years, is the delivery of sealed letters within the town area per  $\frac{1}{4}$ d. post. The Hungarian Post-Office was one of the pioneers in the utilisation of motor tricycles for the collection of letters from the street wall-boxes, which are planned on a most ingenious principle. Incredible as it may seem to the English reader accustomed to see the postman taking the letters out of the box by hand in good old-fashioned style, in Hungary the postmen never handle nor even *see* the letters they collect from the boxes. The collecting-bag is already locked when handed to them empty at the head office. The act of attaching it to the letter-box causes both to open automatically, and the contents of the letter-box fall from above into the collecting bag beneath. The act of withdrawing the bag from the box effectively locks both. On the return of the men to the head office the bags are unlocked by responsible officials, and then the first personal handling takes place.

The letter-bags used for the conveyance of official remittances from office to office are furnished with patent safety locks. Automatic post card and postage stamp supply machines, on the "slot" principle, are met with in all the large towns; while even an apparatus for the automatic

<sup>1</sup> It may be well to point out that *Austria*, between which and Hungary there is naturally a considerable amount of telegraph traffic, is regarded by the Hungarians as a *foreign* country.

registration of letters is now on trial. One may, also on the "slot" principle, deposit one's spare silver (in crowns) in the Post-Office Savings-Bank. All these are public conveniences in regard to which the English Post-Office may well take a leaf from the Hungarian's book.

The Hungarian Post and Telegraph (including the Telephone) Service finds employment for upwards of 40,000 persons of both sexes. There are 2,200 offices at which telegraph and telephone business is transacted. Of these, sixty are open during the whole twenty-four hours; some others are open during half the night as well as throughout the day. Eight hundred call offices 'phone messages to the nearest head office for transmission by telegraph; while 2,300 railway stations also undertake public telegraph business. As in England, the charge for inland telegrams has a 6d. minimum; though "local" telegrams (*i.e.*, those originating and delivered within the town radius) cost 4d. only. Budapest is in direct telegraphic communication with Vienna, Trieste, Prague, Lemberg, Sarajovo, Belgrade, Bukarest, and Braila; and telephonically with the whole of Austria, besides places in Bosnia, Bulgaria, Roumania, Servia, and Germany. The Telephone Centre at Budapest is overloaded with upwards of 18,000 subscribers; another for the accommodation of 14,000 being now in course of erection.

Though there is much to praise in the Hungarian Post and Telegraph Administration, yet to the Englishman there is also something to criticise. Many offices, for instance, close for one or two hours during the middle of the day, at the very time when the general public are themselves most free to transact their postal business. Most of the offices, too (head offices excepted), close as early as six p.m., rendering it considerably inconvenient for the employé class to transact their postal business, as they usually do not leave their employment until after that hour. If the Post-Office is, as it certainly ought to be, a *public service*, the public convenience should be considered before that of the post-office employés. Since

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the Administration makes an annual profit of £680,000<sup>1</sup> it would appear well able to afford the additional expense of keeping *all* post-offices open throughout the day as well as of extending the evening service until at least eight p.m.

From the Post-Office to the Post-Office Savings-Bank is an easy step. This useful institution, founded in 1886, resembles in its chief features its English counter-Savings-Banks. part, but differs in two important respects : it not only performs additional public service by means of its cheque-clearing department, but has, moreover, a reciprocal arrangement with the savings-banks of Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Switzerland and Belgium, besides, of course, Austria, the partner in the Dual Monarchy.

For the first five years after its foundation its accounts showed a deficit ; now, however, one may regard it as financially sound as the Bank of Austria-Hungary. During the year 1911 (the latest year for which I have been able to procure data) the Hungarian Post-Office Savings-Bank transacted cheque-clearing business representing a total value exceeding £333,000,000 sterling. At the close of the same year some 780,000 depositors had the sum of £4,628,000 standing to their credit. The following table shows at a glance the rate of progress.

1886	.	.	.	£118,297
1890	.	.	.	339,283
1895	.	.	.	904,849
1900	.	.	.	1,361,318
1905	.	.	.	2,868,523
1910	.	.	.	4,522,916
1911	.	.	.	4,628,000

Besides the ordinary mode of depositing one's spare funds, the youthful Hungarian may elect to lay by his savings till (1) his majority, <sup>2</sup> (2) his marriage, or (3) until his military service

<sup>1</sup> Seventeen million crowns : information specially supplied for this work.

<sup>2</sup> In Hungary a person is not legally of age until the twenty-fourth year.

is completed. Such deferred deposits bear interest at the rate of 3·6 per cent.

Witnessing the popularity of the Post-Office Savings-Bank private bodies decided to emulate its example. To-day the number of private savings-banks in Budapest and the provincial towns is almost legion. From investigations I have made, there appear to be some 1,674,000 savings-bank deposit books in the hands of the general public, the aggregate amount deposited being £119,870,000, equal to £71 5s. per book. These facts prove thrift in a nation whose annual budget is about £60,000,000 sterling.

The Austro-Hungarian Bank being the bank of issue of the Dual Monarchy, has been treated of in the Austrian section. I shall therefore content myself with stating that Hungary is represented in that institution by a Managing Council and a Director, with the Hungarian headquarters at Budapest, just as the Austrian managing body and headquarters are at Vienna. Over both branches is a Governor-in-Chief.

There are innumerable other banking houses, whose aggregate funds amount to £360,953,750. These establishments do not cash each other's cheques; neither are their regulations uniform; some cheques must be cashed within fourteen, others ten days, or they are void. A cheque drawn on a certain branch will not be accepted at another branch even of the same banking firm.

Twenty Hungarian towns have Chambers of Commerce, supported by a number of private associations with similar aims and objects. The Budapest Bourse (or *Tőrszde*) is also the Corn Exchange. Its annual sales of corn average 32,000,000 tons.

I am informed there are no statistical data of the inland trade, except with respect to cattle—a branch of business of minor importance. The Statistics Office appears to concentrate its activities rather on keeping account of the foreign trade of the country. During the last quarter of a century this has increased 73 per cent., its aggregate value

exceeding £125,000,000 annually. In the period under review the value of the imports has risen from £36,462,500 to £64,816,000; and the exports from £37,204,166 to £62,867,000—the trade balance showing an export surplus of £12,000,000.

It must be pointed out, for the benefit of the English reader who is too apt to regard the Dual Monarchy as a *single State*, that the preceding data are based on the definition of Austria as a *foreign country*. As may be supposed, the Empire naturally plays the most important rôle in the *foreign* trade of the Hungarian Kingdom. The following table shows at a glance the relative importance of the various States in the foreign commercial relations of the country :

## VALUE PER ANNUM.

	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.	BOTH.	PERCENTAGE.		
				Imports	Exports	Both
Austria .	49,797,500	44,704,666	94,502,166	76.83	71.11	74.01
Germany .	4,533,291	6,092,083	10,625,374	6.99	9.69	8.32
Gt. Britain .	1,160,583	1,453,083	2,613,666	1.79	2.30	2.04
Bosnia .	1,093,833	1,444,750	2,538,583	1.60	2.31	2.00
British India	1,405,291	759,958	2,165,249	2.17	1.21	1.70
Italy .	710,875	1,415,917	2,126,792	1.9	2.26	1.67
Roumania .	653,417	1,255,666	1,909,083	1.01	2.00	1.49
France .	687,291	1,152,875	1,840,166	1.06	1.81	1.44
United States	1,141,791	271,666	1,413,457	1.76	0.43	1.11
Servia .	966,375	338,291	1,304,666	1.49	0.54	1.02
Russia .	289,041	665,791	954,832	0.45	1.06	0.75
Switzerland .	286,417	488,800	775,217	0.44	0.78	0.61

With the whole British Empire, Hungary has a commercial turnover exceeding £5,000,000 sterling per annum.

Of the *imports* of the country, textile goods comprise 30 per cent., articles of cotton being most conspicuous; the remainder consisting chiefly of ready-made clothing, leather goods, iron and hardware, and machinery.

The value of the principal *exports* in an average year is as follows :

Corn and Flour . . . . .	£20,829,166
Animals . . . . .	10,347,917
Animal Products . . . . .	4,209,166
Wood and Coal . . . . .	3,718,750
Wine and Spirits . . . . .	1,877,500
Fruit and Plants . . . . .	1,671,666
Sugar . . . . .	1,472,084
Leather and Leather Goods . . . . .	1,363,898
Iron and Hardware . . . . .	1,542,500
Machinery and Vehicles . . . . .	1,677,500
Textile Goods . . . . .	2,559,584
Explosives . . . . .	992,917

A few words on the Hungarian currency, weights, and measures may fitly conclude this chapter.

Bronze coins are 1 and 2<sup>1</sup> fillér pieces (10 fillér = 1d.) ; nickel, 10 and 20 fillér pieces ; silver, 1 crown (= 10d.), 2<sup>1</sup> and 5 crown pieces ; gold, 10,-20,-50, and 100-crown pieces.

Liquids are measured by the *litre* (= 8888 quart) and *hectolitre* (= 22·01 gallons) ; dry goods by the *kilo* (= 2·2055 lbs.) and *metercentner* (= 220·46 lbs.) ; and land by the *hold* (= 1·43 acre) and *hectare* (= 2·471 acres).

<sup>1</sup> A 2-fillér piece and a 2-crown piece were formerly called a *kroneczar* (*kráczsar*) and a florin (*forint*) respectively, but those terms are now unfashionable and discouraged.

## CHAPTER XII

### THE JUDICIAL SYSTEM

THE first object of a civilised community is the administration of justice between man and man, without regard to power, wealth, or social distinction on the one hand or the lack of these on the other. In Hungary, as in England, no exemptions from the regular judicial procedure are permissible, or at least they are never acknowledged, the highest nobles being amenable to the law equally with the humblest peasant. That " money is power," and that the possession thereof sometimes enables a litigant to defeat justice, are indisputable facts, exemplifications of which are not confined to any single country under heaven. Human laws and their administrators are both alike liable to error ; but when due allowance has been made for human frailty, it may justly be said that the Hungarian Code compares very favourably with that of England.

The  
Judiciary.

The great legist of Hungary was Stephen Verböczy, who, in 1517, wrote his *Tripartitum Corpus Juris consuetudinarii inclytæ Regni Hungariæ*, a kind of Hungarian " Blackstone," and codified custom and statute law.

The right of primogeniture is unknown to Hungarian law, and titles are inalienable. Thus when a man is created a count, not only does his wife become a countess, but all his children are counts and countesses too, and their children after them *ad infinitum* ; so that in the course of a few generations there may be some hundreds of persons bearing the same countly title, many of them too poor properly to support the dignity. The same applies also to other titles of nobility. The inheritance is divided among all the children, the eldest son having the custody of the family archives, and the youngest the possession of the ancestral home. So long as one member



of the family is alive, the property remains in its possession, reverting to the Crown only in the event of the family becoming extinct.

When, in the sixteenth century, Hungary first came under the rule of the Habsburgs "only the nobility," says the ex-Minister of Justice, Dr. Antal Günter, "could counter-balance this foreign authority, for the peasant was at the lowest stage of development, and the cities were at this time considerably estranged from the national life. From the point of view of independent national existence the conservatism of the nobility became therefore a necessity. Its power could be maintained only by the system of serfdom, the unfree tenants (*jobbagnones*) receiving a holding as wages for the work done for the landlord."

The influence of Western civilisation on Hungarian law was noticeable towards the close of the eighteenth century. Joseph II, as we have already seen, sought to impose laws on Hungary in defiance of the Constitution, but all his efforts were thwarted by the national opposition. In that monarch we have an example of one who tried to do a right thing in a wrong way. At a later period we find the estates of the realm themselves endeavouring to initiate the necessary reforms by *constitutional* means; and though they were not immediately successful, the good seed was nevertheless sown that bore fruit in the year 1848. By that time the old feudal law was changed into a common law for all citizens. Landed property was enfranchised, the old bonds between landlord and tenant were dissolved, the former being indemnified by the State for the loss of the latter's services.

It was soon discovered that the old Hungarian law could not quickly adapt itself to modern conditions, and this led to the adoption of many of the laws of the neighbouring states, though in a revised form.

In Hungary as in England from the dawn of history to mediæval times the monarchs took a personal part in the administration of justice. Then to facilitate the King's



**HIS EXCELLENCY DR. ANTAL GÜNTER**  
*(Sometime Minister of Justice; now President of the  
Royal Courts of Justice)*

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judicial duties itinerant judges were created to assist him. Besides the supreme court, the *Curia Regis*, there were special courts for the nobles, and landlords' courts for tenants. In 1848 the judicial power of the landlord came to an end and in 1871 the nobles' courts were superseded by the State courts, the administration of justice thus becoming at length completely democratised.

The Hungarian Minister of Justice is at the head of all the institutions of judicial service, and supreme administrative authority under the Crown in everything concerning justice. The principal functions of the Ministry over which he presides are : to supervise all the courts and take care that they keep within legal limits in the fulfilment of their duties ; to devise means for the perfecting of justice and a rational organisation of judicial administration ; to issue instructions for the conduct of cases, without, however, changing the prescriptions of the law or hampering the independence of the judges ; to make representations to the King with regard to pardons ; to supervise the organisation of prisons and penitentiaries ; and to give effect to the new laws passed in Parliament.

All the judges and magistrates must report to the Minister on the cases tried by them. The Minister, moreover, presents to the King the nominations for the appointment of judges, presidents of the courts, and secretaries. All lower officers the Minister may appoint himself.

In dispensing justice the judges are independent ; they judge and decide in accordance with the law. The presence of three judges is necessary for a court to be able to dispense justice, which is done publicly in the courts, except in such cases where the judges consider it necessary to exclude the public in the interests of order. The discussion and the vote are secret, while the judgments are delivered aloud and publicly. The judges, dispensing justice in the King's name, are irremovable ; they may not be despoiled of their rank, nor deprived of their posts except in case of malversation by virtue of a disciplinary condemnation in a higher court. They

cannot be held responsible before the law for their judicial acts, neither may they be retired against their will before reaching the age of sixty-five years.

The qualifications for appointment as a judge are: (1) Hungarian citizenship, (2) sound and complete legal erudition, (3) knowledge of the language of the court over which he is to preside,<sup>1</sup> (4) good moral character, and finally (5) he must not be under twenty-six years of age. A judge's salary varies according to the rank of his court; it may be anything from £160 to £500. The President of the Curia, corresponding with the English Lord Chief Justice, receives £1,200 a year.

There are in Hungary Proper 385 district courts, 67 county courts, and 11 courts of appeal. In Croatia-Slavonia, which enjoys judicial autonomy, there are 73 district courts, 9 county courts, and 1 court of appeal. Besides these, is the Royal Supreme Court, or "Septemviral Table." Both the district and county courts are competent to give judgment in civil and criminal cases, though in the latter the punishment inflicted may not exceed 12 months' imprisonment.

There are in Hungary Proper 2,274 judges of first instance (magistrates) whose office is by no means a sinecure, since each deals with an average of 2,300 cases annually. The courts of second instance (Courts of Appeal or "Royal Tables") have 214 judges; while the Supreme Court of Justice at Budapest (the *Curia Regis*) has 79 judges. Besides these there are 76 presidents and vice-presidents of the tribunals.

In Croatia-Slavonia there are 60 district and 75 county judges, and exactly 40 of the courts of second and third instance, besides 14 presidents and vice-presidents.

Law costs are lower than in England; consequently a Hungarian lawyer, if his income be derived from his profession alone, is not so comfortably situated as his English colleague.

Owing to the number of sub-nationalities in Hungary,

<sup>1</sup> This is not necessarily Magyar; it may be Croatian, Servian, Roumanian, German, or Italian.

though every judge and magistrate is required to know the language prevailing in his jurisdiction, a considerable number of interpreters are employed.

Legal procedure in Hungary follows very closely that of England, though in practice the punishments inflicted are generally less severe than in the latter country. As recent instances of Hungarian leniency may be cited: (1) The case of an M.P. shot dead by a young man who went to the house of the former evidently in a quarrelsome mood. As the victim angered by the reproaches levelled at him, rushed at the accused to strike him with a stick, the jury took the view that the accused, in shooting, merely acted in self-defence and accordingly acquitted him. (2) The outrage on the Speaker of the House of Commons, when that dignitary was shot at, fortunately without effect, by a member. The assailant, after trial, was set at liberty on the ground that at the time of the occurrence he was suffering from "brain storm" and therefore not responsible for his actions. The Hungarians claim that this mildness tends to the diminution of crime, and point out that, whereas in 1889 there were some 7,000 convicts in penal servitude, there are now some 4,000 only, notwithstanding the increase in population.

As in England, in Hungary also pursuit of the guilty is carried out with the utmost caution to avoid implicating the innocent; no person may be compelled to give evidence incriminating himself; and trial by jury obtains in all cases of serious crime involving five years' penal servitude or more, as well as in political and press offences. Should a case of wrongful conviction or of mistaken identity be brought to light, the victim receives compensation from the State.

Even so early as the thirteenth century the legal status of woman in Hungary was considerably superior to that enjoyed by woman in the neighbouring countries; and had it continued to lead the van of progress in this respect it is possible that at least a modified form of female suffrage might to-day be an accomplished fact in the land of the Magyars. At that

early period a Hungarian married woman could dispose of real estate, act as the independent guardian of her child, and even *vots* by male proxy. To-day a married woman has absolute control over her own property. If she have none and be left a widow, full provision is made for her to the extent of her late husband's estate.

Hungarian law has, however, no legal provision against the exploitation of female virtue by dishonourable men, such, for instance, as that afforded by the salutary Breach of Promise law of England, or the more recent measures against the White Slave traffic. Though corporal punishment is foreign to modern Hungarian sentiment, it might advantageously be revived for the chastisement of creatures of either sex whose actions have put them without the pale of humanity. Cases have been known (I hope they are rare) in which Hungarian brides have been abandoned at the very altar<sup>1</sup> and no redress at law could be got. The result of this state of things is to hedge round the virtuous of the sex with precautions unusual in England; young ladies must be accompanied by a chaperone if they go out in the evening; if belated in the afternoon without escort, they must hurry home; in short, the familiar friendship and the chivalrous relations between man and woman which constitute one of the chief charms of English life, do not exist in Hungary to such a great extent.

Since 1894 *civil* marriage has been obligatory, the religious solemnisation being left to the option of the contracting parties. As in England, the State undertakes the registration of births, marriages, and deaths.

Hungary has an Employers' Liability Act; there are legal restrictions against the exploitation of the economically weak by the strong, as well as measures regulating the conditions of labour in the lower grades. For the regulation of commercial relationships and the removal of abuses, there are the Commercial Code (1875), the Bill of Exchange Act (1876),

<sup>1</sup> Or rather at the Town Hall, since civil marriage must precede the religious ceremony.

the Bankruptcy Act (1881), and the Co-operative Societies' Act (1898).

The legislation in the interests of the children has already been dealt with.<sup>1</sup> First offenders and juveniles are never (unless the circumstances be very exceptional) sentenced to imprisonment, but put on probation. Culprits under eighteen years of age are usually committed to a reformatory, of which there are five in Hungary, capable of accommodating 1,000 boys and girls.

On the principle that environment influences conduct and moulds character, the youthful criminal is removed from his unwholesome surroundings and placed in a reformatory conducted on the "family" system. There he makes one of a family of thirty "brothers," with the teacher as the "father" (*in loco parentis*) who not only gives formal lessons but guides his charges in all the circumstances of their life in the institution. He attends them in workshop and garden, encouraging them in manual labour and taking part in their recreations. He is constantly on the watch to detect and correct their faults, to encourage them by praise or restrain them by reproof. Often on leaving the reformatory a youth finds himself on a higher plane, mentally, morally, and materially, with the knowledge of a useful trade that places him on the high-road to a successful career. At Aszod is a reformatory with a coach-building school; at Kassa is another with schools of carpentry, leather-work, and textile industries, the productions of which have gained prizes at international exhibitions. The inmates of these institutions, when morally regenerated, are sent forth again into society, of which in nearly all cases they become useful and respectable members—the hope of Hungary of the next generation.

<sup>1</sup> *Vide* Chapter VIII.



## CHAPTER XIII

### STATE OF SOCIETY IN HUNGARY

THE social system of Hungary, which differs considerably from that of the surrounding countries, may be said to consist of four classes: the magnates or higher nobility, the lower nobility, the tradespeople of the towns, and the peasants of the country.

**Social  
Conditions.**

The families of the magnates form regular *clans* after the Scotch fashion, between which people and the Hungarians there are many points of resemblance. The title being inalienable, as explained in our previous chapter, it passes to all the children ;

**The  
Magnates.**

and as there is rarely any entail of property, except in the case of some score of the highest families, the whole is usually divided among all the members of the family. Thus it frequently happens that, in the course of generations, estates are divided and sub-divided until they become almost invisible.

The Hungarian magnates are usually very accomplished, speaking several foreign languages with ease, and being acquainted with the literature of all the cultured nations, besides which they are musical and artistic in their tastes. Usually good horsemen and keen sportsmen, easy and graceful in their movements, they are among the best dancers in the world. Towards each other genial and hospitable, courteous and tactful in their intercourse with their inferiors, yet their pride of race is strong and social barriers are sharply defined. They acquired much of their wealth and influence from their connection with the Court of Vienna, in the palmy days of Queen Maria Theresa, who attracted them thither, causing them to a great degree to become denationalised. Though the nationalistic sentiment of Hungary to-day is intolerant of lack of patriotism, the Esterházy's, Batthyány's, Festetics, Pálffy's, Károlyi's, Andrássy's, Széchenyi's, and Wenckheim's are, nevertheless, very cosmopolitan in taste and habits.

The lower nobility correspond as nearly as possible to the English county families, many of them being able to trace back their pedigree to the earliest days of Hungarian history. They are the descendants of the landed proprietors who, as freemen, received the patent of nobility from the sovereign. Though they may have lost their estates, be poorly educated, and occupy humble stations, some of them living in scarcely better style than the peasants around them, yet all their linen will be decorated with the five-pointed coronet and monogram, a framed coat-of-arms hanging from the wall in the parlour, and an air of unmistakable superiority upon their countenances. Though untitled, they are very proud of their right to the use of the coronet, a right that mere wealth cannot purchase. They are above all remarkable as being the most distinctively national element of Hungary, being the *real Magyars* who have never succumbed to Viennese influences.

Before 1848 both magnates and lower nobility enjoyed, by right of birth, certain privileges denied to their social inferiors—the chief of which was exemption from taxation of every kind; but in that year, when the nobility generally surrendered their privileges for the common good, the magnates declined voluntarily to join in the sacrifice. This led to a gradual cleavage between the two ranks, and now there is practically no social intercourse between them.

While the magnates hold aloof from the lower nobility, the latter are equally proud. Many are wealthy and live in considerable style, both in Budapest and on their country estates. This class, according to Dr. Elemér Hantos, M.P., was of the greatest social and political importance in past times. "Every possessor of the land was a noble, though he owned but a few acres, and furnished his slender contribution towards the equipment of a knight. In England, those who were three degrees removed from the King in order of tenancy were considered as ignoble, but in Hungary, where subinfeudation was unknown, we never meet such distinction.

The word 'noble,' therefore, had a meaning altogether different from its signification in England. It answered more to the 'freeman' of Magna Carta and expressed a right to certain political and civil privileges not enjoyed by the rest of the population."<sup>1</sup>

A few words may be said here concerning the family names of the aristocrats and nobles. The custom prevails in Hungary similar to that in vogue among the lairds of Scotland, of calling families after their ancestral estates, as "James Campbell, Esq., of Campbelltown"; and though in many cases the ancestral estate may have long passed from them, the *predicate* (as it is in the Hungarian usage) is still retained. In some instances families possess (or have possessed) more than one estate, in which cases they attach the designations of them all to their names, thus: *Szentmiklós* és *Nagykeresztesi Szilassy János* = John Szilassy, Esq., of Szentmiklós and Nagykeresztes. Where the family name has been derived from the estate (which is the case with all the most ancient aristocratic houses), the family name ends with *yi*, as *Apponyi* (of Appony), *Batthyányi* (of Batthyány), *Károlyi*, and *Széchenyi*. Sometimes we meet with family names prefixed with *de* (as *de Nádosy*, *de Maithény*). This is not the French form, as many suppose, but the Latin, thus: *Princeps Paulus Esterházy de Galánta* (Prince Paul Eszterházy of Galánta), the classic idiom having been used in Hungary until a comparatively recent period.

The tradespeople are, generally speaking, not real Magyars, but mostly Germans and Jews. To distinguish the ones from the others is not an easy task to the uninitiated, seeing that both have usually German names. After residence for a time in Hungary, it begins to dawn upon the Englishman that though most of the tradesmen have German names, some of

<sup>1</sup> *The Magna Carta of the English and of the Hungarian Constitution*, by Elemér Hantos, D.C.L., M.P.

those names are sufficiently dignified while others are rather ridiculous. Better acquaintance will reveal the fact that the latter are generally borne by the Jews and the former by the Germans. Thus, while Klein, Schreiber, Beyerlein, Bülow, Schultz, and Seidel *may be Germans*, Reinkopf (*Cleanhead*), Feuerlöscher (*Fire-extinguisher*), Himmelreich (*Kingdom-of-Heaven*), Goldfaden (*Golden-thread*), Rauchbauer (*Hairy peasant*), and Klopfer (*Knocker*) *are certain to be Israelites*. There is a reason for this, and one that does not say much for the sense of fairness of the Magyars of a past age. Up to the reign of Joseph II the Jews were not permitted to have *surnames*, besides being compelled to wear a distinctive badge, live outside the town boundaries, and suffer other humiliations. They were known somewhat as "*Isaac the money-changer*," "*Abraham the umbrella-mender*," and "*Jacob the pedler*."

In the "Introduction" to Jókai's *Rab Ráby* we read: "The rough outline of the Terézváros<sup>1</sup> was just beginning to show itself in a cluster of houses huddled closely together, and the narrow street they were then building was called 'Jewry.' In this same street, and in this only, was it permitted to the Jews, on one day every week, by an order of the magistrate, to expose for sale. . . Within the city they were not allowed to have shops, and when outside the Jews' quarter they were obliged to don a red mantle, with a yellow lappet, and any Jew who failed to wear this distinctive garb was fined."

Dr. Hantos, already quoted, says: "The position of the Jew was peculiar and unhappy. He was an alien, and as such had no political rights, and so could inherit no landed estate, his very residence in the country being on sufferance. He was, moreover, an hereditary alien, for he was unable to do homage or fealty. He was the King's chattel." Reading further we find that, although often the monarch was disposed to be lenient towards the despised race, "under the influence of the Church *Bulla Aurea* took efficient measures to exclude

<sup>1</sup> One of the wards of the city of Budapest.

Jews and all heretics from the holding of public offices, pledging the King to confer such posts only on the nobles of his realm. (Article 24.)”

To return to the subject of Jewish surnames. When the Emperor Joseph (1765-90) admitted the Israelites—in spite of the opposition of the Magyars—to the rights of citizenship, he gave them the privilege of choosing a surname, which should be *German*. Owing, however, to the ill-will of the Magyar authorities of the period, the good intentions of the Emperor were frustrated; and most of the unfortunate Jews were registered for life and posterity with the *nicknames* (in German) that their neighbours in derision had fastened upon them.<sup>1</sup> In the course of a century many of these names have undergone such modification as to render them less objectionable, though some are still sufficiently curious, as may be gathered from the examples given.

Now, however, a happier state of things prevails; and though antisemitism is not yet dead in Hungary, a different spirit animates the Magyars to-day. They are only too pleased for anyone with a *German* cognomen to exchange it for another (generally its translatable equivalent) in the Magyar tongue. The present writer himself is sometimes called “*Szigeti*” (of the island) by his Hungarian friends—a direct Magyarisation of the name *Delisle*.

The position of the Hungarian peasantry has vastly improved since 1848, but their lot is still a hard one, providing ample material for the philanthropic labours of any Magyar “John Bright” or “Astley-Cooper.” Francis Deák, in his published speeches and papers, draws a gloomy picture of his humble fellow-countrymen in the early part of the last century. In

<sup>1</sup> Even some of the pure-blooded Magyars, however, have peculiar surnames: *Bornemissa* (He drinks no wine), *Bovomissa* (He drinks my wine).

Compare these with the Duke of Westminster's surname, Grosvenor (*i.e.*, *Grosventre*).



*Photographed for this work by*

*Miss Teri Mattyasovszky.*

**HUNGARIAN PEASANT TYPE**

# TO THE ABBOT

1871

1872

1873

1874

1875

1876

1877

1878

1879

1880

1881

1882

1883

1884

1885

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1897

1898

1899

allusion to the practice of billeting troops upon them, he declared, "The wild beast has its den, and the bird its nest, from which they have power to keep off all intruders; but the Hungarian tax-payer<sup>1</sup> is not even master over that which is most exclusively his own—he is not free to do as he likes in his own house; for the State, whose whole burden falls on his shoulders, does not leave even the peace of his home undisturbed, but foists upon him guests whose presence he is compelled to tolerate, who are frequently aliens from foreign lands, and who are not even connected with him by the bond of a common tongue and the love of a common country."

Pleading that the peasantry should be allowed to possess land, Deák said, "Let us grant to the people the right of property, and thereby draw them closer to us, and attach them with a bond of affection to that Fatherland which has been in great measure both supported and defended by them. Let us allow the people to hold land." "No," answered the majority, "for—*omnis terra proprietatis ad dominum spectat*—property is sacred and inviolable." "True," we replied, "we are willing to grant that the people must obtain property from the lord of the soil, *ad quem omnis terra proprietatis spectat*, by means of voluntary sale." "Heaven forefend!" exclaimed our opponents; "such an idea is contrary to the Constitution." Thus limited in our scope, we finally prayed that the people might at least be absolved from compulsory labour. . . . To this it was answered, "We will consider that question another time." And now we have come to the very last clause of our humble petition, so much of which has been refused. We have now but one request to make, and that is, that the bodily sustenance of the people may be cared for; that they who bear on their shoulders the burdens of the whole nation should not have the very bread taken out of their mouths. This can hardly be refused; this surely is "not contrary to the Constitution." . . . I wish to see the injustice which has gone on during the 800 years of our constitutional

<sup>1</sup> The peasantry were the *only* taxpayers in Hungary at that period.



existence atoned for. I wish it in the interest of our country, for the full development of the nation can never be achieved so long as personal security is only a privilege enjoyed exclusively by the minority."<sup>1</sup>

These bold and noble words of the great Hungarian tribune were not in vain. Supported by the eloquence of a few of his contemporaries, and aided by the state of the times, radical changes for the better in the condition of the peasantry were effected.

That their condition is not yet satisfactory the constant stream of emigration to America is sufficient to show. In 1906, according to official statistics, 169,202

**Emigration.** Hungarians left their homeland. The emigration problem has been a source of anxiety to the Government for some years; and that something has been done in the matter may be assumed, as in 1910 (the latest statistics procurable) the number of those who sought a home across the Atlantic was reduced to 96,324. This pleasing sign is no doubt due in some measure to the economic revival referred to in Chapter XI. It is to be hoped that ere long sufficient employment may be found to enable every Hungarian to remain on his native soil.

Technically illegal, duelling is as rife in Hungary as in the dominions of Kaiser William II. If a gentleman's "honour"

**Duelling.** be touched, there is no help for it but a resort to arms, and sanguinary encounters are the rule. After a duel with swords both combatants are sometimes compelled to hide their disfigured features from public gaze for a week or two. The best that can be said for Hungarian duels is that they seldom leave rancour behind. I have in mind the case of a gentleman challenged who, less than a couple of months after a murderous combat, in which the challenger (as he deserved) got a split skull, interested himself to procure for his whilom adversary a good berth in the public service. When a duel comes under

<sup>1</sup> *Francis Dedk: Hungarian Statesman*, by M. E. Grant-Duff.



*Photographed for this work by*

*Miss Teri Matyasovszky.*

HUNGARIAN PEASANT TYPE

70 ANNUAL  
ABSTRACTS

the notice of the authorities the offenders are given a mild term of imprisonment, which involves no social disgrace, such as the refusal to fight would certainly do. In one year fifty-five cases of duelling were dealt with by the magistrates, but those probably do not represent a tithe of the duels actually fought, most of them taking place in private houses and fencing schools, where the police are little likely to interfere. Those who make the laws (*i.e.*, the politicians) are among those who most often break the law in this respect.

It is a good sign of the times that the militant upholders of personal honour are counterbalanced by the Anti-Duelling League in Budapest, which numbers among its members several prominent legislators and representative men in various branches of public life, all pledged to rid the country of this relic of a barbarous age. Mr. Aristide Dessewffy, M.P., is President of the League, as well as being prominently identified with the Interparliamentary Union and the Universal Peace Movement.

Though the modern Hungarian, whatever his class, is not usually a strict church-goer nor a regular, to the peasants both Catholic and Protestant the utterance of pious phrases and Scriptural quotations and allusions comes as natural as swimming to the duck. This is said to be an inheritance from an earlier age when sincere religious faith played a greater part in the lives of the people than apparently it does to-day. In all the chief events of life the name of "God" and "the Lord" is frequently invoked. As for instance, when walking in the country one is frequently greeted with the salutation, "*Jesus Christ be praised!*" To which the expected answer is, "*Now and forever, Amen!*"

When a young peasant couple have decided to wed, the young man chooses a spokesman from among his friends and, with him, proceeds to his sweetheart's home to formally demand the consent of the parents, who, it might be presumed, have been prepared for the visit. Without preliminary the

**Marriage  
Customs.**

would-be benedict's friend addresses the girl's parents somewhat after the following manner: "As it was God who instituted the holy ordinance of marriage when He said to Adam, 'It is not good for man to be alone' and created Eve to be his help-meet, be it therefore known unto you that this worthy man, A. B., having carefully considered the matter, desires to take a wife in obedience to the commands of the Lord. We have heard a good report of your daughter C., and if Almighty God hath been pleased to unite her heart with this man's it would be sinful for mortals to put them asunder. We pray you to give permission for their union." The suit is naturally received with favour, since it has all been arranged beforehand, and refreshments are now served round. Later in the day the now betrothed couple call together on the priest or pastor to receive his blessing, returning to the home of the young woman for the "betrothal festival."

The religious solemnisation of matrimony (after the civil marriage at the Town Hall) differs but little from the English form; but invitations to the wedding feast are *verbal* through the intermediary of the "best man," who calls on those whom it is intended to invite and delivers himself of the following message: "Pardon my intrusion, but I am deputed by Mr. and Mrs. A. B. to invite you to the celebration of their daughter C.'s wedding on the . . . instant. Please bring your knives, forks, and plates."

In the wedding procession all the male friends of the bride and bridegroom, wearing garlands of flowers, ride gaily beribboned and flower-decorated horses and gallop along, wildly discharging pistols into the air.

The toasts in honour of the newly-wedded are always most flowery effusions, such as: "May holy affection's bonds entwine your hearts for ever." "May the fruit of your union be as the trees in blossom." "May you be overwhelmed with happiness." The "best man's" benediction upon the bride is a performance worthy of the clergyman himself. Addressing her, he says: "May the Almighty

crown thy head with happiness ; may Nature smile upon thy face ; may care and affliction never draw a sigh from thy lips ; mayst thou dwell in peace and unity with thy husband ; may thy earthly life be prolonged, and when at last thou yieldst it up, may it be to exchange it for eternal life in Paradise." As a reward for this pretty speech the "best man" is kissed by the bride.

Among the rural festivals of Hungary may be mentioned the Vintage, the Harvest Home, and the Pig-killing, all accompanied with music and dancing, affording unbounded merriment to all present—except, in the case of the last, to the poor animal in whose honour the festival is given.

At Easter it is customary to present eggs of chocolate or sugar<sup>1</sup> and to sprinkle one's friends with scent. Among the rustics the "sprinkling" is usually performed by means of a pail of water thrown over the object of the polite attention.

The decorating of horses, carts, and carriages on May Day is carried out in Hungary to-day as it used to be in England a generation or more ago.

In Hungarian towns there is no "rule of the road" for pedestrians, and much jostling and dodging to avoid collision are the natural result ; while in the event of an unusual attraction in a shop-window a crowd collects, blocking the foot-path and extending, perhaps, half-way into the horse-road. Such is the "liberty of the subject" in Hungary that the policeman has no right to interfere.

<sup>1</sup> Among the farming people real eggs painted red are exchanged.

## CHAPTER XIV

### HUNGARIAN SCENERY

No work on Hungary would be complete that failed to make mention of some of the natural beauties and peculiarities of the country; and in point of interest in both these respects the High Tátra region is *jacile princeps*.

High Tátra  
Region.

It is, in short, a rock-bound land of romance, with castles long gone to ruin and their ancient chivalry forgotten. In this land, at more than 3,000 feet above sea-level—considerably higher than the Peak in Derbyshire, or even than Scafell—is Csorba, the most elevated village possessing a railway station in all Hungary. Still higher up is the lovely Lake Csorba, its banks fringed by pine forests and snow-capped mountains surrounding it on all sides. This lake, covering an area of fifty English acres, is, though more than 60 feet deep, quite transparent, the bottom being easily visible at all times. At an altitude of 5,000 feet is another lake, Poprád, in whose emerald green depths, clear as crystal, disport shoals of lively trout. Here one may experience snowstorms in the middle of summer, and gaze on beautiful pine-clad heights, whose summits glisten with coronets of eternal snow, and on innumerable lakelets, cascades, and streams that glitter on the plateaux like stars in the Milky Way; } while down in the valley lie the villages of the Tátra, nestling amidst lovely foliage and looking for all the world like the contents of a toy “Noah’s Ark.”

The principal resorts are Tátra-Füred and Tátra-Lomnicz, where warm sunshine may be enjoyed in the depth of winter. Even when the snow is several feet deep one may witness what to a foreigner must be a novel spectacle: men strolling about in straw hats and the lightest of clothing! In the

neighbourhood are the two falls of the Tarpatak river, both resembling sheets of plate-glass, the lower having a sheer descent from a height of 120 feet. In the Tarpatak valley are numerous lakelets, called by the peasantry "the eyes of the sea" (*tengerszem*), as according to their lore they are connected with the ocean. This is a fallacy, however, for the lakes have been sounded and their greatest depth is found not to exceed 235 feet.

Hidden away in the Tátra forest-lands is the famous cavern of Dobsina, whose ceiling and walls are of limestone and its floor a mass of slippery ice. Entering the

A Cavern. cavern a sudden transformation is experienced, from the brilliant warm sunshine without, to this frigid underworld where one's very breath is congealed, forming hoar-frost on moustache or face-wrapper. A veritable realm of ice it is, sparkling and scintillating in the glare of the electric arc-lamps. As far as the eye can reach are majestic columns, slender pinnacles, graceful minarets, stately domes, fountains, altars, alcoves—all of chaste ice, clear as crystal; to say nothing of the fringes and curtains of exquisite lace-like delicacy and beauty which hang suspended from the ceiling—all of the same transparent material—while flashing gems of ice, like myriads of diamonds, are strewn around. The visitor conversant with the "Arabian Nights" is sure to think of Aladdin's enchanted palace.

There is the Grand Hall, the floor of which forms a natural skating-rink of 1,750 square yards superficial area. Descending wooden stairs we reach a corridor, upwards of 600 feet long and 60 feet high. Traversing this and descending still lower, we gaze upon weird, fantastic shapes, icicles, forming dainty tassels which refract the light like so many crystal prisms. Passing from chamber to chamber, each in turn presents some new and startling specimen of Nature's handiwork, suggesting such fancies as the "Bedouin's Tent," the "Winter King's Palace," the "Fairy's Bower," the "Organ," and the "Magic Curtain." Long after returning to the light



of the sunny day, we find ourselves wondering whether what we beheld was a reality or but a fantastic dream.

At six miles distance is the charming valley of Sztracszina, with Mount Rhadzim forming a purple background in the declining rays of the setting sun, and the

The Gölnicz  
River.

Gölnicz river winding its tortuous course through the verdant meadows. In contemplative mood we follow the stream, until suddenly we experience a shock of surprise. *The earth has swallowed it up!* Some miles down the valley, however, it reappears, now dashing madly over boulders, now scattering its purple waters in thousands of tiny spray-drops, sporting rainbow tints in the sunlight; now whirling in a vortex, its clatter subsiding into a subdued murmur as it glides smoothly over a sandy bed, or floating above slabs of polished granite like a transparent veil. Where it fills the deeper recesses the dark grey crags and motionless pines are mirrored in its glassy surface, presenting a magic harmony of silence and repose in vivid contrast to the ceaseless unrest of life.

In the immediate neighbourhood is the village of Aggtelek, boasting a wonderful stalactite cave, which for the magnifi-

A Stalactite  
Cave.

cence of its proportions is unrivalled in all Europe. Its principal chamber is 6,000 yards in length; another chamber branching off to the right is at least half that length, the total area of the cave covering five square miles. Two streams flow through the length of the cavern, dubbed not inappropriately *Styx* and *Acheron*.

Close to the entrance is the "Charnel House," used in the Stone Age as a cemetery. The primeval inhabitants of the cave appear to have been the *ursus spelaeus*, or cave bear, and certain domestic animals that were the companions of man at that early period. Investigations within the cave have established the fact that in the Neolithic Age the dead were buried face downwards, flat stones being placed under and above the head. There is abundant evidence, too, that

the cave was used in the Bronze Age as a human habitation. domestic implements, the remains of a hearth and of food having been discovered therein.

Crossing the rude bridge over the *Acheron* we enter the "Fox Hole," and proceeding through the "Vampire Cave," skirt the "Stinking Pool," our stroll terminating at "Paradise," which, superfluous to add, is the prettiest part of the cavern. Here are numerous stalactite columns which, reaching the floor, practically support the roof, and, when illuminated, strike the beholder as a most impressive sight. He gazes with admiration on the "Alabaster Column," a white stalagmite superbly formed; and the "Observatory," another stalagmite rising to the height of 65 feet from a pedestal 25 feet in diameter. The furthestmost recess of the cave has been given the awesome name of the "Infernal Abyss."

A few hours hence by rail in a south-westerly direction will bring us to the largest lake of Central Europe, a possession of which Hungary is not unnaturally very

**Lake Balaton.** proud. This is Lake Balaton, of which the reader may have heard under its German name, *Plattensee*.

The Tihany peninsula divides the lake into two parts, the upper being the broader and more extensive, while the lower is the more impressive on account of its length. Beyond the Fülöp roads, at a distance of thirty miles from the head of the lake, the finest basaltic cones in Europe rise up sheer out of the water. The chief of these is Mount Badacsony, a magnificent broken cone rising to a height of 1,350 feet, protruding into the lake and forming two inlets, above the vine-clad slopes of which a row of superb basaltic columns support a wooded summit. Balaton's shores were cultivated in the remote days of the old Romans, who planted the first vines on its fertile slopes and built their villas on the more charming spots, the remains of which have been brought to light by modern discoverers.

Between Balaton and Fiume, in the vicinity of Ogulin, is a bit of the picturesque certainly unequalled in Europe, perhaps even in the whole world. The falls of Szlujin are one of the wonders of the wonderful Karst region. Bursting forth from a cave, the Szlujinsicza rushes boisterously down between rocky banks, forming a series of cataracts, until the stream joins the larger Korána river right under the ruins of Count Frangepani's ancient castle of Szlujin.

The south-eastern highlands of Hungary formed for some time in the past the independent principality of Transylvania.

To-day, however, that name is merely a geographical expression, though its sharply defined natural boundaries and the peculiar customs, costumes, and language of the peasantry still preserve the impression that it is a separate state.

Walled in by her seven mountains,<sup>1</sup> Transylvania has been amply compensated by Nature for her isolation from the rest of the world by the lavish gift of scenic beauties. Whoever has had the good fortune to travel in Transylvania never tires of describing the bewitching pictures of rushing waters, frowning rocks, snow-covered peaks and verdant valleys, as well as of the variety of picturesque national costumes of the Wallachs, Roumanians, and Saxons who form the bulk of the population of that wildly romantic land.

Of certain interest to the novelty-seeker is the island of Ada Kaleh, in the Danube below the "Iron Gate." Here among ruined forts are groups of small houses, with a mosque whose minarets stand out boldly against a background of azure sky. Grave-looking Orientals, wearing the fez and smoking their *narghiles*, attend to their business in the leisurely manner peculiar to the inhabitants of the East. This island, a perfect paradise as regards its flora and climate, is a remnant of the once mighty Ottoman Empire, whose

<sup>1</sup> The German name for Transylvania is *Siebenburgen*, meaning literally "Seven fortresses" (*i. e.*, fortified hills).



*By permission of*

*Miss Maimie L. Delisle*

**TRANSYLVANIAN PEASANT COSTUME**

70 vnu  
A1907130

glory has departed even during the past six months. To-day the island is peopled exclusively by Moslems and the Austro-Hungarian garrison. Its political status is peculiar : for, though a *Hungarian* possession, it sends a representative to the *Turkish* Parliament !

Hungary is rich in beauty-spots besides those already referred to ; while many of her cities are of thrilling historical interest. Pozsony, or Pressburg, her ancient capital, is sacred to the memory of the glorious Maria Theresa, who knew how to reward her " faithful Magyars." Komárom, or Komorn, is her virgin fortress, and the headquarters of the Danube torpedo-boat flotilla. Esztergom, or Gran, is the Hungarian " Canterbury," the seat of the Prince-Primate, possessing a cathedral practically as stately and magnificent as St. Peter's at Rome. The University city of Kolozsvár, or Klausenburg, is remarkable as the capital of the former principality of Transylvania, the scene of eighty Parliaments, and the Mecca of Unitarianism. Pécs, or Funfkirchen, has the most ancient cathedral in Hungary, said to have been erected on the ruins of an old Roman structure.

To do justice to—nay, merely to mention—all that is of interest in Hungary is impossible within the limits of this work. Those travellers whose acquaintance with Hungary is confined to Budapest, have not seen Hungary at all, and can hardly be said to have seen the Hungarians. For Budapest is eminently cosmopolitan, having little in common with the land of which she is the metropolis ; her vices and virtues are peculiarly her own ; like a queen enthroned, she holds aloof, as it were, from her subjects, the provincial towns. The *real* Hungary and the *real* Hungarians are not to be found in the Capital, but in Debreczen, the Protestant " Rome," Kecskemét, famed for its fruit, Temesvár, the garden city, Szeged, of painful memories, and other towns of the Great Plain.

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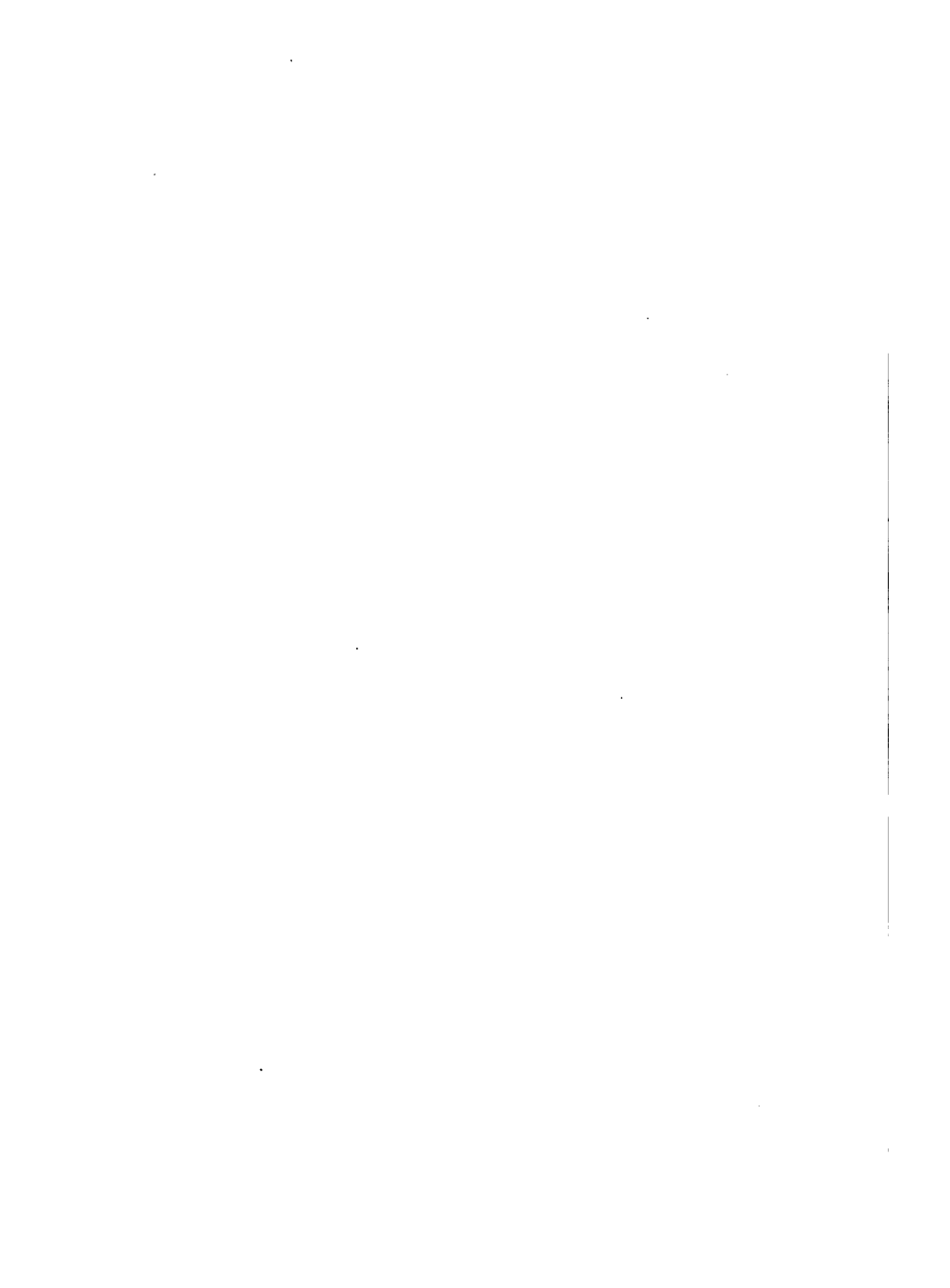
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